The Nation.

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The Week.

HILL is giving the country a perfect exhibition of what Hillism really is. Having had his State Committee call the State Convention in February to choose delegates to the Democratic National Convention of next June, he has begun grinding out delegations to this State Convention before the end of January. The call for the Convention was issued on the afternoon of January 25, and on January 27 the Hill managers in Hornellsville went through the form of holding primaries, and elected a "solid delegation for Hill." It is also given out that the Hill machine proposes to abandon the old Democratic plan of selecting delegates to the National Convention (outside the delegates-at-large) by Congressional districts, and to have them all chosen in bulk, and that the men who are to represent districts in the central part of the State have already been picked out in this city. Believers in decent politics cannot be too grateful to Hill for thus giving the nation an exact measure of himself. All that was necessary to make the Democrats of the United States understand what a cheap wire-puller he really is, and how preposterous is the idea of nominating him for President, was an exhibition of his methods such as he is now giving.

The meeting of Democrats in this city on Friday evening, which resulted in a formal protest against the Hill "snap" Convention, and a call for a mass-meeting on the 11th inst. to "consider and decide upon the necessary measures to secure the best interests of the Democratic party," is an encouraging sign that the spirit of manliness and honesty yet exists in the Democratic party in this city and State. Surely if that spirit did not manifest itself now, it never would. The party has been seized by the throat by a political highwayman whose character is so despised by respectable Democrats that they never think of inviting him to their houses or attending receptions at clubs, or elsewhere, which Tammany organizes in his honor; yet these same respectable Democrats have been allowing him for seven years gradually to take complete control of their party organization, and to fill the offices of the State with his "pals" and heelers, without lifting their voices in any except the feeblest and most timid protest. We trust that the present movement means a new departure, and that from this time on the intelligence and manhood of the party will not merely demand but will openly assume control of its councils. That is the only kind of opposition within the party that Hill dreads. The moment all efforts to remain harmonious and friendly with him are abandoned and his debasing and demoralizing leadership is repudiated, the beginning of the end of his boss-ship will have come. Friendliness with him before election means always the same thing after election—contemptuous treatment of all the decent men in the party, and rewards for all its tricksters and cheats.

The main business of the Senate at Washington thus far has been passing bills for public buildings. Loaded upon the calendar in hot haste, they are taken up through the instrumentality of "Senatorial courtesy," and passed on the well-understood system of "Vote for my bill if you expect me to vote for yours." One of the tricks of the trade is a voluntary reduction of the amount originally asked for. Thus, Senator Stewart introduced a bill for a $100,000 public building at that well-known metropolis of 5,000 souls in Nevada named Reno. The Committee cut the amount down to $75,000, and when even that amount was objected to in the Senate, the Senator from Nevada generously exclaimed: "We will agree to reduce it to $60,000." This reminds one of Webster calling, in a moment of spirituous elevation, for the amount of the national debt, and offering to pay it himself. But the thing is to get an appropriation once made and the building started; then the deficiency can be made up easily enough, for is it to be supposed that the Government will carry a building up to the third story, and then let the walls crumble for lack of money to put on the roof and a statue of the Goddess of Liberty?

The trouble with the Senators is, as Messrs. McPherson and Allison had to remind them last week, that they wish to continue the methods of the flush days of the Treasury in these poverty-stricken times. When the surplus was upwards of $100,000,000, and kept averaging that for a series of years, the money was fairly aching to be appropriated, and the readiest way of "getting it into circulation again" was in public-building bills. They were the easiest to slip through Congress, inasmuch as the most rigorous economist in matters of general public expenditure would always have some modest little bill for his own "deestrict" on the anxious list, and would know that he must be tolerant of other people's schemes of the sort if he was to get his own through. There can be no question that, under the constant temptation of the surplus and the perfecting of the log-rolling method, the evil of appropriations for unnecessary public buildings grew alarmingly. President Cleveland did much to check it by his vetoes, and President Harrison has followed his example in that particular, though with halting steps. He may now, however, be expected to display much greater severity towards such measures, since the condition of the Treasury will admit of no raiding.

When Secretary Foster sent in his annual report to Congress on December 7, he gave the estimate for pensions during the fiscal year 1893 as $147,064,550. This was among the estimates "as submitted by the several Executive Departments and offices," and came, of course, from Commissioner Raum. Yet that gentleman informed the Committee on Pensions last week that he should need $160,000,000 for the year in question. An estimate which is $13,000,000 out of the way is highly valuable for a Secretary of the Treasury to figure on, and makes his estimated surplus of but $14,000,000 look particularly silly. It is only another instance of the thoroughly muddled condition of our present Treasury reports.

Senator Hale made a labored attempt on Thursday to disprove the fact that Mr. Blaine's original reciprocity schemes were flouted by the Republicans in the Senate. He admitted explicitly, what of course everybody knew before, that the amendment which he introduced on June 19 "had been prepared in the State Department." But he proceeded to say:

> "As some attempt has been made to show that the original reciprocity amendment received rude treatment at the hands of the Senate, and that its original authors were not considered in the legislation of Congress, I may state here that, after the changed condition resulting from the repeal of nearly all of the sugar duty, the Aldrich amendment was heartily accepted by the friends of the original amendment in the Senate, by the Secretary of State, and by the President. The basis of the original amendment was the retention of the sugar duty till reciprocal treaties could be negotiated. When that basis was changed and the repeal became a fixed fact, it is difficult to see what other plan than the Aldrich amendment could be devised."

This is delightful. When did this "changed condition resulting from the repeal of nearly all of the sugar duty" appear? On May 21, the date the McKinley Bill passed the House. It was nearly a month later, June 19, that Senator Hale introduced the Blaine amendment. It was not called up and debated till September 2, over three months after the time when, Senator Hale now says, its "basis was changed and the repeal became a fixed fact." The very point and force of the amendment was to avert that repeal. What Mr. Hale really says, therefore, is that Mr. Blaine's plan did not receive "rude treatment" in the Senate, because after that plan had failed to receive a single Republican vote, after its author had thus been trampled upon in the house of his own friends, he gathered himself together, in his customary "here

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we are again" style, and loudly claimed as his own a measure which he had bitterly fought, but which was crammed down his throat. Senator Hale will have to try again.

Those whose memories reach back to 1876 will have no difficulty in understanding how Mr. Blaine has come to have a constitutional dread of facing documentary evidence. If his agreements cannot be produced against him in writing, he feels at entire liberty to repudiate them, even when the other evidence against him is conclusive. His reply to the Chilian Minister is very like the one he made last spring to the Brazilian Minister. When the latter, at the time the Spanish Treaty was announced, sent a messenger to Mr. Blaine with bitter reproaches for having deceived him into assuring his Government that the United States would make no agreement with Spain affecting Cuban sugar, the Secretary's ready answer was: "Does he claim to have any formal and written assurance of mine in that matter?" So important did he regard this that he got Gen. Foster to obtain from Minister Mendonça, as an "anchor to windward," a letter admitting that no formal promise on the subject was passed. The inference is that Mr. Blaine considers a clear understanding between gentlemen as of no binding force whatever unless reduced to writing. He fooled and then flung over Mr. Mendonça, and now tries to do the same thing with Minister Montt. At this rate he will soon have in every country of "Pan-America" a victim of misplaced confidence in his honor.

Some of our contemporaries, and the President himself, seem disposed to throw the blame of the President's ignorance of the receipt of Mr. Montt's note at the State Department on Monday week, before he sent in his War Message, on Mr. Blaine solely. But this will hardly hold water. Mr. Blaine was undoubtedly guilty of negligence that looks malicious in not warning the President that a Chilian despatch had been received and was undergoing translation, knowing, as he certainly must have known, that a war message had been prepared. But the President knew well that some such communication was *probably* on the way, for he had sent his "ultimatum" on the previous Thursday, and had been asked for and had conceded two days' delay for the answer. Now, a peaceable man, seeking peace and prizing it, would have grasped at every known chance of peace, and waited patiently for every possible excuse for delaying warlike action. There was no date on which war *had* to be declared. A quarrelsome man, bent on a fight, would, on the other hand, have done just what the President did —hasten any action that would be likely to cut off negotiations. His eagerness, in fact, to get in with his message, *coûte que coûte*, as the *Tribune* would say, was well revealed by his Sabbath-breaking on Sunday, for, according to Mr. Allen, he kept the compositors at work on that day setting up a document which was certainly far from sacred. No Presbyterian Elder would do this in order to increase the chances of a bloody war, who was not nearly beside himself with martial ardor. Poor Mr. Blaine has burdens enough of his own to bear without having to shoulder the whole of this one.

In the course of a little cooing between the "gentlemanly" *Tribune* and the "high-minded *Sun*," the former concurs with the latter in the following pregnant observation:

> "It is worth a hundred millions to have the world know that there is a united country behind the flag, and it is also worth a great many millions to have public men in this country know that there must be a united country behind any Administration in any sincere and wise endeavor to promote the public welfare."

If it be really true, Simplex, that "the world" did not know until we had this squabble with Chili that there was "a united country behind the [American] flag," and if "public men" were ignorant of the fact that "there must be a united country behind any Administration" in order to make its blunders conducive to its continuance in office, your estimate of the money value of the Chilian squabble is ridiculously low. We should put it, were we in your place, at five million millions of dollars, and we would refuse to lower it except under physical compulsion. We thought the world had been made acquainted with the fighting capacity of the American people in the years 1861-1865, at an expense of $4,000,000,000, or thereabouts. If that lesson has been already forgotten in twenty-five years, how long would a $100,000,000 advertisement retain its virtue? Why, only seven months and two weeks, and we should have to have a squabble with some other Power next fall in order to retain the respect of "the world."

The dreary and long-spun-out Connecticut deadlock appears to have reached a final phase of partisan scandal likely to continue until next January. When, some three weeks ago, the Supreme Court of the State gave its too vague decision in the Morris-Bulkeley suit, it implied in one part of its finding that the "two-day" limit had cut off a declaration of State officers, while in another part it suggested that the Legislature might yet declare them. The Democratic Senate then brought up the case of Phelan, who received at the last election a clear majority of 544 votes for Secretary of State, and asked the Republican House for a conference committee. This committee disagreed, but before its House members could report, the Bulkeley men flung in a resolution giving the Speaker power to "recess" the House for two months in any absence of a quorum. To defeat this, the Democratic members of the House broke the quorum by going out into the lobby, and the Speaker declared a recess for one week, as the existing House rules allow him to do. Thereupon, the private secretary of Gov. Bulkeley, who is also Secretary of the Republican State Committee, sent notice to the Republican majority not to come back until ordered to do so. At present, therefore, each Wednesday the Speaker goes to an almost empty House and declares "no quorum" and a recess from week to week. His "sharp" tactics also tend to prevent the Democratic claimants from taking the Supreme Court's advice and going under the common law to the Superior Court, as there the Republicans can now raise the technical plea that the Legislature, being in session, may yet "declare" the State officers. Thus the deadlock is complete, and the two houses apparently must sooner or later adjourn to draw their pay for work they have not done.

The decision of the Supreme Court of the United States, that Boyd, the Democrat who was elected Governor of Nebraska a year ago last November, is entitled to the office out of which he has been cheated most of the time since his term began, accords with the popular sense of fair play. Boyd came to this country when a boy, and always supposed that his father had perfected his naturalization papers so that the son was a full-fledged citizen. Moreover, he had served as a soldier in the Union army and had held various offices, including the Mayoralty of Omaha, without any question ever being raised as to his full rights. It therefore seemed a peculiarly mean piece of business that the Republican politicians of his State should try to keep him out of the Governorship, to which he had been fairly elected, by bringing up a technical point against the regularity of his father's naturalization papers, and should succeed for about a year by securing a decision in their favor from the Republican Judges who constituted a majority of the State Supreme Court. All but one of the judges of the United States Supreme Court, five Republicans and two Democrats, concur in deciding that the State Supreme Court was wrong, in reversing its judgment, and in remanding the cause, "to be proceeded in according to law and in conformity with this opinion."

But while this decision accords with the popular sense of fair play, it must be admitted that there is great force in the dissenting opinion of Justice Field, the veteran Democratic member of the bench. He takes the ground that the Supreme Court of the United States has no jurisdiction to determine a disputed question as to the right to the Governorship of a State, however the question may be decided by its authorities, right or wrong. He holds that the States, by the express declaration

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of the tenth amendment to the Constitution, are independent political communities, except as to such powers as are ceded to the General Government or prohibited to them by the Constitution; and that the powers of the General Government to interfere with the administration of affairs of a State and its officers extend only so far as may be necessary to secure to it a republican form of government, or to protect it against invasion and domestic violence. Nor does Justice Field consider that the fact that one of the qualifications prescribed by a State for its officers can only be ascertained and established by considering the provisions of a law of the United States, authorizes interference by the General Government with the action of the State. These theoretical objections of the dissenting Justice to the position taken by the majority of the court are sustained by the practical consideration which he suggests, that there is no power to enforce upon the State of Nebraska the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States. "How could this court," he asked, "in case of refusal of the incumbent to vacate his office, enforce its order? An attempt to do so by force would not be sustained by the Executive, or by Congress, or by the people. He could see only mischief and trouble to follow from the assertion of any such power over the authorities of a State as is claimed in this case." It is difficult to impugn the force of this reasoning.

The Supreme Court rendered another important decision on Monday, in which all of its members concurred—a somewhat unusual circumstance. It upholds the law of Congress which prohibits the sending through the mails of newspapers containing lottery advertisements. The New Orleans lottery people have fought this law with the greatest persistence, and employed the ablest lawyers to argue against its constitutionality. It is easy to understand why they wanted to overthrow it. The advertisement in the newspaper—and particularly when it appeared in that most deceptive of guises known to the counting-room but not to the ingenuous subscriber as a "reading notice"—was the surest way of luring the unsuspicious into their toils. It would be difficult to exaggerate the amount of patronage which was secured by those seductive stories appearing in the columns devoted to selected matter, telling how a grocer in one distant city, a clerk in a second, and a shoe-maker in a third, had drawn large prizes, and received the money from New Orleans by express-package. Prohibition of any use of the newspapers is a terrible blow at any business in this age of newspapers, and it is no wonder the lottery people dreaded the application of such a rule. The moral effect of such a decision in helping the opposition to the lottery in the pending campaign in Louisiana must be great.

The arrest of Henry H. Yard on freshly discovered evidence of complicity with Marsh, the fugitive President of the Keystone Bank, may possibly lead to interesting developments in the carefully hushed-up Philadelphia scandal. Yard is already resting untried under two indictments for conspiracy with Bardsley for the unlawful use of public funds. It came out during the investigation in June last that Yard was a partner with Lucas, the former President of the Keystone Bank, who was discovered after his death to have robbed it of $998,000. He joined Lucas in some real-estate speculation, as good Mr. Wanamaker joined him in some speculations in Reading stock. It came out, also, that Yard raised money for some of his speculations on one of the bogus certificates of Keystone Bank stock which Wanamaker had sworn that he had received from Lucas as security for money advanced and had never allowed to go out of his pocket-book. Yard in some mysterious manner got possession of one of them, even as Wanamaker's brokers got possession of others, and used them to raise money on. Yard has never been forced to trial on his first indictments, but he may be on the new evidence which is now said to have been discovered by a United States Secret-Service officer who has been engaged with experts on the Keystone books. On this evidence he is charged with aiding and abetting Marsh in the misappropriation of nearly $70,000 of the bank's funds. We trust that his trial will be pushed, for as a connecting link between Lucas and Wanamaker on the one hand, and between Bardsley, Marsh, and Lucas on the other, he has from the first been a most interesting figure in the scandal.

The opposition in Spain to the reciprocity agreement with the United States has found expression in the Cortes, and the Government has consented to the appointment of a committee to investigate the whole question. The arrangement is most stoutly attacked by Spanish protectionists, and as the present Administration came into power upon an ultra-protectionist platform, the choicest dialectics of protection will have to be put into play to show how an arrangement which makes trade freer is really a protectionist measure. The Spanish Premier could learn a valuable lesson in this matter from some of our own Irrefragable Doctors of protection of the new school. But it is going to be exceedingly awkward for him to risk incurring the enmity of the group of unattached protectionists, of whom Gamazo is the mouthpiece, and who distinctly notify him that he can count upon their votes only as long as he gives their constituents all manner of protective duties. Perhaps the Investigating Committee will bring out the actual circumstances under which the treaty was originally forced upon Spain. The secret history of that affair would show that the Government of the United States gave Spain an "ultimatum," as well as Chili, and that a scheme of international brigandage affecting Cuba was sedulously cultivated by some of the finest patriots among us.

The embarrassment in which the Germans are placed by the eccentricities of their Emperor steadily increases. That the son of his father, educated as he has been, in the latter part of the nineteenth century, in perhaps the most highly cultivated community in the world, should have, at the age of thirty, the opinion he has of his own power and wisdom, seems to a growing number of his subjects hardly consistent with perfect mental sanity. His mind is apparently that of a fourteenth or fifteenth-century king. Many of his accounts of his own mission to the German people and of his responsibilities on their account seem strongly symptomatic of that form of lunacy which consists in an inordinate self-importance, known technically as megalomania. He has tried the public patience a good deal already by his claims to almost superhuman knowledge and sagacity, but none of his legislative undertakings has been quite so serious as his Educational Bill, now before the Reichstag, providing for the religious education of the children in the public schools in such creeds as the Government approves of; or, in other words, the transfer of the children of Jews, Turks, and infidels to the cure of the Christian clergy. The object of this legislation is, according to the Emperor, to abolish "atheism" among his subjects, and bring them all into a religious fold specially constructed by himself or under his approval. The number of atheists in Germany is very large. The number of sceptics—that is, of persons who have a private religion of their own, the nature of which they consider nobody else's business—is still larger. But larger than all is the class who dislike and despise the clergy, and will on no account permit them to educate their children. All these classes together include a very large proportion of the German culture and intelligence. To attempt to force an official religious creed on them, after the fashion of Queen Elizabeth or King Charles I., is one of those fantastic ventures which shake thrones to their foundation. There is probably no country in Europe in which it would be more preposterous than in Germany, for in none have the commercial and professional men got so far away from the Church. They have, in fact, got so far away that to the great bulk of them American and English piety is absolutely incomprehensible. To attack these classes on their tenderest point, in the character of "the Lord's anointed," may fairly be considered evidence of some kind of unsoundness.

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THE SHAME OF IT.

We presume no gentleman in the United States will read these remarks of Mr. Blount, Chairman of the House Committee on Foreign Affairs, on the Chilian apology without hearty concurrence: "I was almost smitten with a feeling of pity that people who seemed to be animated by such generous sentiments should be placed in the position of making so humble an apology." But we are sure that every gentleman who agrees with Mr. Blount will feel something besides pity, namely, shame over the means employed to extract this apology. No episode nearly so discreditable is to be found in the annals of American diplomacy. The President is at this moment an object of ridicule in Congress, and in fact all over the world, for having sent a war message to Congress without waiting for the answer to an "ultimatum," as the Warriors called it, which he had sent to Chili.

The ultimatum was sent on Thursday, January 21. It was not received at the Foreign Office in Santiago till the 23d. Answer was at once made asking for two days' delay in replying—*i. e.*, until Monday—as President Montt was absent in the mountains. This ultimatum, as is well known, made peremptory demands, compliance with which was sure to be felt as more or less humiliating by a high-spirited and martial people. It was, in fact, the communication of a duellist asking for "satisfaction." But it did not emanate from a duellist: it emanated from the President of a peaceful Christian republic, himself a prominent church member, and was addressed to a little republic just emerging from a bloody civil war. As Mr. Allen of Mississippi—himself a member of a duelling community—pointed out in Congress on Thursday, a duellist in his State is bound to wait a reasonable time, on pain of social disgrace, for an answer to a "hostile message." But our President did not obey even the duelling code. After having received this request for a brief delay on Saturday, he deliberately sent a message to Congress on Monday, the 25th, virtually asking for authority to attack the Chilians with his fleet, and bristling with gross insults to the Chilian Government. He gave the lie to nearly all its assertions touching matters of fact, and discredited the decisions of its courts of law. It was, in fact, such a communication as is never addressed to a disputant or antagonist, even by duellists, except with the view of forcing a quarrel.

More than this: he sent this warlike message to Congress at twelve o'clock on Monday, either knowing or not knowing that an important communication had been received that morning at the State Department from the Chilian Minister in Washington, touching the matter in hand. If he knew it was there, but was determined not to wait for it, having his own document all ready, his conduct deserves to be characterized in stronger terms than we care to use. If he did not know of it, and failed to make any inquiry about it before launching a missive which might consign thousands of men to destruction, what are we to say of the way in which he and his Secretary of State conduct the business of a great nation on a question of peace or war? Think of an elder in a Christian church getting up on Monday morning, after a Sabbath's reflection, and deliberately suggesting a bloody war to Congress without asking, up to noon, whether the enemy, *from whom he was expecting to hear*, had been heard from. What are we to call this in the United States in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and ninety-two?

There could hardly be stronger evidence than this, taken in connection with previous events, of a determination to force a quarrel on a weak antagonist. If the management of this quarrel with Chili had previously been gentlemanly, considerate, forbearing, it might be treated as the blunder of a small and nervous man, brought suddenly face to face with a serious and novel crisis. But, as President Harrison's ill-luck will have it, his unseemly haste with the ultimatum is a perfectly fitting close to the controversy as it has been carried on from the beginning.

We began the process of alienating and irritating the Chilians by the appointment of Egan as our Minister—in itself contemptuous to the verge of insult. We continued it by open displays of sympathy with Balmaceda during the civil war; by our seizure and pursuit of the *Itata*, in disregard of the law as laid down by our State Department; by permitting our naval officers during four months to sneer at, abuse, defy, and threaten the Chilians, with the permission or approval of our Navy Department and the loud encouragement of our Government press. When the riot occurred, we forced on the Chilians, with an absolute disregard of the decencies of diplomatic intercourse, a view of governmental responsibility for mob violence which we had ourselves a short time previously utterly repudiated. That all this should end in an attempt to forestall an apology by a snap declaration of war, is simply what consistency called for.

The Chilians, with the exception of Señor Matta, have acted all through as gentlemen and men of sense. They have gone through the agony of a civil war, and borne our insults and abuse with patient courage. They have promptly responded to a demand for "satisfaction" in terms which ought to be read with shame and compunction in every Presbyterian church in the country. The exception of Matta ought not to count against them when we remember that he is a journalistic Warrior—for of course Chili has her journalistic Warriors also—suddenly and for a brief period put in an office evidently too high for him, at the close of the Civil War, in a provisional government. This indiscretion was promptly atoned for when it was found to have given offence. And it must be remembered that the Chilian Government has behind it a martial, proud, and very ignorant population, whose susceptibilities in making concessions to foreign Powers have to be consulted. It would seem as if, in exacting concessions from it, the Ministers of a sister republic would have borne this fact in mind, and have had chivalry and magnanimity enough and sympathy enough to avoid all language which would make its task more difficult. It is not too late for the display of these qualities now. If the President and Mr. Blaine do not exactly know how gentlemen settle misunderstandings with unfortunate and erring friends, they ought to ask somebody in Washington who has had a larger and nobler experience.

PATRIOTISM.

In the military ages—that is, in all the ages before our own—when war was the principal business of the Government, and the soldiers were *ex officio* the chief class in the State, the patriot was necessarily and inevitably the man who was ready to fight and, if need be, die for his country on the battlefield. There is hardly any other definition of patriot to be found in Greek or Roman or mediæval literature. The attempt in Dr. Johnson's day to apply the term in English party politics to the man who opposed a corrupt ministry and tried to effect some sort of reform in the Government, excited his good old Tory wrath, and led him to describe patriotism as "the last refuge of a scoundrel," and the patriot consequently as a scoundrel at the end of his tether.

The modern Christian and industrial definition is something wholly different. The patriot in our day, and especially in the United States, is the just man, and not the fighting man of the ancients. He is the man who, in a private station, lives honestly, injures no one, and gives everybody his due, does the best work he can in his calling, is helpful and kindly to his neighbors and friends; who, in a public station, discharges the duties of his office as faithfully and efficiently as he knows how, without fear or favor, and indifferently between rich and poor; who makes no profit beyond his lawful salary, and obliges no friend or relative at the public expense; who acts in all things with a single eye, not to his own interest or that of his party, but to the public interest, and, in fact, in his whole walk and conversation so conducts himself that his fellow-citizens can point to him with pride, and that, in the eyes of foreigners, he reflects honor on his country and on his government. If he is a newspaper editor in a democratic country, in which public opinion is all-powerful and is largely shaped, on the issues of peace and war, by the press, he writes and collects news in such manner as, if possible, to deceive nobody about matters of fact, and mislead nobody in matters of opinion, to secure full and careful deliberation on all great matters of public

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concern, to bring the best thought of the world and the experience of the human race to bear on them, and to protect national decisions at great crises from the influence of pride, passion, ignorance, animal combativeness, and selfishness. In other words, he is above all things loyal to civilization, and includes under this head everything which brings human affairs under the control of reason, and fosters the larger hopes of the race for the good time coming when the war-drum shall beat no longer, and the battle-flags be furled.

If the above definition of patriotism be correct—and we think few will question it—it will be readily seen that it is no easy matter to be a patriot, and it will be readily seen, too, why real patriots do not abound. It also does something to fortify Dr. Johnson's definition, for every country swarms with men in search of the means of being considered patriots with the smallest possible outlay of labor and sacrifice. The great drones and malefactors, the whole tribe of corruptionists and shirks and charlatans, in and out of politics, are naturally the most eager in this quest. They want to be good patriots without giving up cheating at the polls; without ceasing to sell their votes in the Legislature; without ceasing to defraud the Government in their offices or in their contracts; without ceasing to trade for their own profit on popular passion, or prejudice, or ignorance; without ceasing to invent bogus news, or write disingenuous or silly or reckless articles, in order to sell their paper; without ceasing to sand their sugar or unload worthless stocks on the innocent, or to wreck railroads; or, to sum up, without ceasing to disappoint the hopes of all the generous spirits who look to see their country stand before the world for law, for reason, for "truth and justice, religion and piety."

Now nothing suits this class so well as a definition of patriotism which makes it consist in readiness to go to war to avenge slights and insults under the duellist's code. Patriotism does in this sense furnish a ready refuge to the greatest scoundrel, because he can be a patriot without desisting for one moment from his ordinary avocations, or making the smallest sacrifice of his comfort. A patriot of this kind can air his patriotism without the smallest abatement of his nefarious activity. He is not restrained, as the ancient patriots were, by having to take arms in wars of his own making, for he hires other men to fight, and can make money by betting in the stock market and by selling "extras" of his paper on their battles, sieges, and fortunes, on the devastation of fertile lands, the destruction of great cities, the multiplication of widows and orphans, and the crowding of hospitals, and by filling the breasts of his fellow-citizens with the savage joy of the Red Indian over other people's death and ruin and humiliation. He can show patriotism of this sort while lying on a sofa smoking cigarettes, or drinking brandy and water in a café, or playing poker in a gambling-house. In short, there is no one so criminal, or so vicious, or so silly or empty-headed that he cannot be a patriot by longing and "hollering" for war, and feeling "insulted" by some foreigner, and wanting to have the insult washed out in somebody else's blood in a fight of which he will be a spectator merely.

As this nation grows in strength and size, these patriots are sure to grow more numerous and active. When it numbers 200,000,000, as it will before very long, and possesses, as it probably will, one of the greatest fleets, and possibly armies, in the world, the force which "patriotic" charlatans will have within their reach for offences against law and morality will be tremendous if those Americans who wish to see their country continue to be the great exemplar of the higher modern civilization, as it has been hitherto, do not cultivate the courage of their opinions. The timid silence which good people maintain while the "Patriots" are yelping for some sort of external trouble that will turn attention away from their own treasons, stratagems, and spoils—the fear of even honest and good men of raising their voices against a war they know to be unjust, lest they should "get left" and have the Scoundrels call them names—is an unhappy and dangerous sign of the times. They should remember that in a modern republic, and above all in a modern democracy, the presumptions are all in favor of peace. There is nothing in our day rarer than a "just and necessary war." There has not been one such offensive war, in our estimation, since 1640, except the Revolutionary War and the Civil War of 1861. The burden of proof lies always on the Warriors. It is for them to make out their case; it is for them to stammer, and hesitate, and shrink, and justify themselves in the presence of that great tribunal, the Conscience of a Christian Nation. It is the solemn duty of that tribunal to see that their proofs are perfect.

MODERN CHURCH-MEMBERSHIP.

CONSIDERABLE stir was excited a short time ago when the best-known church in Brooklyn received an application for membership from a man who had just been on trial for murder. He had killed a man in the rooms of a disreputable woman, but was acquitted on the ground of self-defence. Before his trial came on, he had professed conversion in jail, and immediately on securing his liberty expressed his desire to join the church in question. Its pastor has declared himself favorable to the application, though it yet has to be passed upon finally.

Now, taking into account the fundamental theories of Christianity and the original practice of the Christian Church, the sensation made by this incident is wholly inexplicable, and the idea that a church should hesitate for a moment in receiving such a candidate is altogether preposterous. It is impossible to conceive of the Apostles making any account whatever of the previous character of a convert so long as he would heartily accept the tenets they preached. As a matter of fact, we know that the primitive Christian Church counted many among its membership who had been open criminals and debauchees. Writing to one early Christian community, the Apostle Paul catalogues a long list of offenders against the civil and the moral law—some of the vices being now unnamable — and adds with perfect naturalness, "and such were some of you." And throughout the Christian literature of the first two centuries there runs the unmistakable implication that Christianity made its first and greatest conquests among what we should now call the lower classes of society, including many from the criminal or vicious class. That any church of those days could have feared lest its reputation should be damaged by receiving a member who had been guilty of gross licentiousness and homicide, is quite impossible. The theory of the new religion called for the reception of such a man as an equal and a brother, and the practice of the new religion made such receptions the common thing.

The theory has persisted, and it is that which compels a Christian minister to-day to maintain that foregoing bad character must be no bar to admission into the Church; but the practice has greatly changed, and it is this which makes the sensation among church-members who are asked to receive into their fellowship a man whom a great many of them would certainly not receive into their houses. However one may explain it, the fact is patent that the churches have come to stand more and more exclusively for the respectable classes in society. This is one of their greatest merits. They are the result of a long-continued moral selection. They represent the effects of a good moral environment upon successive generations—of the highest ideals of Christianity and civilization handed down from father to son. It is unfortunately true that a great deal of social conventionality has now got mixed with all this, so that wealth and standing, having so long been associated with good character, have come to be identified with it or taken as a substitute for it. Just here comes in the danger that people may seek entrance into a church for the sake of the commercial and social value of a certificate of membership. In the days of the early Church, a man's social position was sacrificed and suspicion thrown upon his character by his becoming known as a Christian; now, it is all the other way. But the fact remains that the churches, as a whole, do embrace selected individuals and families, morally speaking, in whom the fruits of carefully guarded associations and inspiring examples and excellent teaching are manifest.

Is it surprising that such organizations should be startled at the thought of re-

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ceiving alien and possibly dangerous elements into their membership—elements that would in so far impair the great value of the churches as the home of unexceptionable influences? Admitting that the original theory of the Christian Church knows nothing of such moral exclusiveness, the view advanced by the late Dr. Hatch in another connection becomes pertinent. He said that a great deal of discussion had been expended on the question whether the restoration of primitive Christianity were possible, when the more pressing question is whether such a restoration is desirable. Having in mind the vital and now universally admitted truths regarding the power of habit and heredity, the slow and dubious recovery from the grip of the grosser vices, the insidious moral contamination of bad companionships—even of a bad reputation—it is at least debatable whether more would not be lost than gained by a reversion to the methods of the early Church in this particular.

This is not the sentimental view or the ecclesiastical view, we are fully aware. In the few actual cases of the kind occurring nowadays, we suppose that the sentimental and the ecclesiastical view will prevail. The candidate will be received with great professions of brotherly feeling, and then the good fathers and mothers of the church will quietly avoid the new member and enjoin their children to shun him as they would a pestilence. The instances of the sort are too rare to have much practical effect. There is no likelihood that modern Christians—unless it be in missionary lands—may be regarded, as the early Christians were regarded by the stern moralists of Rome, in the light of social and moral inferiors. But on general principles we think it would be a great pity for the churches to do anything to destroy or weaken the reputation they have won as selected social centres of moral influence.

THE SOCIALIST MILLENNIUM.

ONE of the leading German Liberals, Eugene Richter, has written a satire, somewhat in the style of Bellamy's 'Looking Backward' ('Sozialdemokratische Zukunftsbilder'), on Socialism in the shape of a picture of what is to happen after the Social Democrats get possession of the German Empire. It consists of the history, during the Social revolution, of the family of a bookbinder employing a few men in a small business and living in a flat in a populous quarter of Berlin. The capitalists are in the first place driven out of the country. Then all the buildings and machinery of transportation and manufacture are seized by "the State," represented by a committee, consisting of the Socialist members of Parliament. Private property of all kinds is abolished. Labor is made obligatory on all persons of both sexes between the ages of twenty-one and sixty-five, and each person continues to follow the calling in which he is actually engaged until further orders, the product of his labor being, of course, the property of the State. Everybody has to make and deliver to the authorities an inventory of all movable property in his possession and to surrender all gold. The army is disbanded and taxes, of course, abolished. Doctors and lawyers practise gratuitously, their board, lodging, and clothing being supplied by the State. Every person between twenty-one and sixty-five, who has no occupation already, has to choose a trade and register him or herself as following it. Women are relieved from the care of children and all other domestic labor. The children are brought up in State nurseries. Everybody eats at a public restaurant, and the washing is done in State laundries. The ministry of religion as a profession is forbidden.

The applications for places in the service of the State are innumerable. The pressure for light work, such as inspectors, and bookkeepers, and policemen, and coachmen or teamsters, is great, but very few want to excavate, or clean or pave streets or do any dirty or hard work. So the State makes all draw lots, and those who draw the bad numbers have to do the dirty jobs. The State issues orders on the public storehouses, in lieu of money, in payment of services, and things promise very well for a few weeks. But an army has speedily to be organized in order to subdue the farmers, who absolutely refuse to surrender their land, buildings, and cattle and implements, and they have to be subjugated by force. The agricultural laborers then, hearing of the fine times people are having in the city, start in throngs for Berlin, so that there is no one left in the country to cultivate the land. They have to be sent back to their villages under military escort and told to stay there. All houses and apartments in Berlin become State lodgings, and are distributed by lot, but nobody is allowed to have more furniture in his lodgings than is absolutely necessary. Luxuries are not permissible, because there cannot be enough for all, and equality in all things is the law of the State. Everybody has to get his photograph taken and lodged with the State so as to prevent his cheating when drawing his rations. All the public restaurants have the same menu each day, which is drafted by a public functionary. In order to make room for all, each person is invited by an inspector to eat diligently and leave when he has finished; the menus are based on scientific data, so as to supply each person with the proper quantity of albumen and nitrogen, etc. These menus form an "issue" at the elections, as does also marriage, which cannot be contracted without permission, and the young men and the girls chafe under these restraints.

All these absurdities, and many others which we have not space to enumerate, are fairly deducible from the platform adopted by the Socialist Congress at Erfurt in 1891, which included the transfer to the State of all the instruments of production, including, of course, the capital or the savings from past production. Minute regulation of the lives of individuals is, in other words, a necessary consequence of the fundamental principles of Socialism. On a certain day named by law, "the State" must begin to direct the activity of every man and woman in the community, and see that every one gets his fair share of the results of the industry of all. No Socialist writer except Mr. Bellamy, so far as we know, has traced out in detail the way this system would work. These writers content themselves, as a rule, with demonstrating the failure, from the humanitarian point of view, of the régime of competition, and then assume that the fraternal system would only need to be started in order to run on satisfactorily. The great success of Mr. Bellamy's book was due in large part to its furnishing a picture of the Socialist's day in the New Jerusalem, by describing the exact way in which he would get his clothes, food, and amusement.

Of course this picture is made possible only by ignoring human nature as now constituted—that is, by assuming that a keen capacity for the enjoyment of carnal pleasures would survive the total extinction of animal selfishness. It is, therefore, easily disposed of by a picture like this of Herr Richter's, in which this selfishness is made to play in the Social organization the part which it now plays, and which it will play in almost as great a degree as now, it is reasonable to suppose, within any period worth thinking about. But this is, after all, not really the weakest point in the Socialist programme. The point at which the Socialists are really most assailable is one which they never take the trouble to defend. In none of their books or pictures do they explain where they are to get the talent and experience necessary for directing all the individuals of large communities in the whole conduct of their lives. Herr Richter ridicules a great many absurdities, but he does not touch on that greatest of all, which assumes the existence in any country of a Council, Committee, or Parliament, or dictator, capable of taking charge of all affairs, both public and private, and seeing that each man does his duty and gets his share; of discharging the duties of the general of an army, of a great manufacturer, of the head of a large retail store, of the head master of an immense school, of the father of a large family, of the prime minister of an empire, and of a hotel-keeper, all in one. There are no such persons in any State. This is what gives an air of farce to all Socialistic schemes.

LABOR AND TARIFF PROBLEMS IN NEW SOUTH WALES.

SYDNEY, December 28, 1891.

THE year 1891 saw the end of the strike by nearly all the unions of laboring men in Australia. The funds of the societies were exhausted; the situations vacated by unionists

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were being rapidly filled by non-unionists; members of the unions were quietly deserting the organizations whose leaders had so misled them; these leaders, therefore, seeing their power at an end, ordered a surrender all along the line. As there had been no question of wages at issue, the only concession the laborer had to make was that his employer should have the right to hire whom he chose, unionist or not.

Though this particular conflict was over, the opposition of labor to capital was as marked as ever. The next steps in the campaign are not without interest to other parts of the world. In New South Wales the progress of events has been more rapid than in the other colonies of Australia; hence here it can best be traced. However mistaken the labor leaders may have been in the conduct of their great strike, they were not long in appreciating where their weakness lay. All through Australia the railways are run by the governments, and however much a government may favor any particular party, it must act to preserve order and prevent violence. It cannot prevent a unionist from refusing to work, but it can and must prevent his refusing to allow another to work. While the railways were running and non-unionists could work, the unions could never have the country at their mercy. The labor leaders, therefore, decided that their next step must be to control the Government; and, as a general election was near at hand, they decided to stand for Parliament.

Labor matters being quiet on the surface for the moment, the special questions before the people were free trade (the then prevailing policy) and protection; also, the system of allotting votes. Manhood suffrage prevails here for the elections to the lower house; but apart from the vote in the district where a voter resides, one additional vote is given in each electorate to any one owning or leasing a piece of property having an annual value of £10. Under this rule, some men have eight or ten votes in all; but the districts are usually so far apart that not all could be availed of within the time given for an election.

The labor party were strongest in sections where most of those engaged as stevedores and dock laborers lived; hence their sympathy was with foreign trade and all that brought shipping to the port. Their cry was, "Free trade" and, "One man one vote"; and on these issues thirty of the labor party were elected to a House of about 150 members. The other members were nearly equally divided between free-traders and protectionists; the labor party were thus holders of the balance of power, and for a time gave their support to the free-trade Ministry of Sir Henry Parkes. Soon a bill came up making eight hours the legal limit of a day's work. Though the limit is recognized fully by custom, there is no law to this effect, and Sir Henry was not in favor of one. On this point the labor party deserted him, and, beaten on a division, Sir Henry at once resigned.

The Opposition leader formed a Ministry avowedly protectionist. The new Treasurer immediately proposed a customs tariff, alleging that the public finances were in such a state that new taxation was necessary. To prove this he maintained that the current year would show a deficit of about $3,000,000. This the former Treasurer denies, stating that there is really a surplus of at least $1,500,000. The annual expenditure of New South Wales is about $50,000,000, and it seems to be largely a matter of bookkeeping which statement is correct, the point involved being what items are properly chargeable to this year. This expenditure is entirely apart from the money borrowed in London, which is chiefly spent on reproductive works—railways, common roads, etc. The question for the labor leaders to decide was, therefore, whether to vote for protection pure and simple, or to be loyal to their promises and vote with the free traders. It would seem to have been an easy position, but a vote for free trade now meant a victory for the Opposition, and therefore a general election. On this the party fell. Members of the House receive £300 per annum, railway passes, etc., and still have time to attend largely to their regular occupations. Reëlection was by no means sure for many who had promised much and performed little. The majority of the thirty decided to "stay in" at all costs, and threw in their lot with the protectionists. Later they again voted against a proposal of the free-traders, that no change should be made in taxation till a House had been elected on the principle of "One man one vote."

Thus the old story repeats itself: the labor party is betrayed by its leaders, who seek only their own aggrandizement. Such it must ever be till a new generation arises and laborers choose as their leaders men very different from the loud-voiced, much-promising demagogues who at present seem everywhere to secure their confidence. The tariff now passed, thanks to the labor-leaders' votes, places a duty on wheat and many food products which New South Wales does not fully supply itself with. This is doubly bitter to the wharf laborers, who will have fewer produce cargoes to unload and more to pay for their own food. The colony has too long enjoyed free trade to suffer protection for more than a short period, and this is too well understood for many capitalists to embark in any of the protected industries. One curious incident is that shopkeepers are charging many goods at the old prices, adding in a separate line, at the foot of the bill, the amount of the duty—a very effective object-lesson.

Changes are rapid here. A year ago the labor party was entering on a gigantic struggle with capital, with as fair prospects of success as it can ever have. Now it has its second defeat to face—a defeat due, even more directly than the last, to the bad faith of its leaders.

J. E. Bullard.

PARLIAMENTARY AFFAIRS IN JAPAN.

Tokio, December 26, 1891.

The Parliamentary crisis has come sooner than was expected, and the members of the lower house find themselves

"Shipped, dissolved, and loosed"

by a Cabinet ready to face affairs boldly, and to go to the country upon the merits of the issue. Yesterday (Christmas Day), at 6:50 P. M., the House adjourned for the New Year's recess, and at seven o'clock the Cabinet, which had been deliberating since four, sent down an Imperial order dissolving the lower house and proroguing the upper.

Such a result had been often talked of, but few believed it to be so near. The situation during the last month (Parliament opened November 27) has been this: The Opposition, which, by the defection of certain Moderates, gained but a partial victory in the last session, found itself much stronger at the opening of the present session. The chief reason was the definite accession of Count Okuma (the victim of attempted assassination in 1889) to their ranks, and his elevation to the real leadership. This again was due to the positive and final breach, during the summer, between Count Okuma and his old associates, Ito and the others. When Okuma's Treaty-Revision plan was defeated in 1889 by the jealous obstruction of rivals, no definite break ensued in the coterie of Restoration leaders. The Count was given a place in the Privy Council, and thus remained in effect in the Government. But there is no doubt that, during the interval, he and his aids have increased their efforts to embarrass the Government in all ways. Certain allies of his—but let us say without his knowledge—have taken satisfaction, for example, in throwing the financial affairs of the country into confusion, and creating mercantile distrust. An open effort at conference with Count Itagaki, the time-honored leader of the Radicals, finally made it necessary for the Government to notice these doings, and Count Okuma, alleging illness, retired from the Privy Council. Since that time he has effected a union of the so-called Progressists (*Kaishin-to*) and Radicals (*Jiyu-to*), and they have been enabled to heal their dissensions and work together in the Diet. The master hand of Count Okuma could easily be seen in the almost machine-like method in which the various Budget items were treated. The Budget Committee recommended an impossible reduction of some eight millions out of ninety-odd, and the report of the Committee was in almost every case accepted and voted without even a semblance of debate. The report of the proceedings during the past week read something like this:

"The estimates for the Foreign Department were then taken up. Mr. Takahashi, Government delegate, explained that the reductions proposed by the Committee were absolutely inconsistent with the interest of good government. The closure was moved, and the items were passed as amended by the Committee. The Finance Department was next taken up. Mr. Suzuki, Government delegate, protested that the proposed reductions were out of the question. The closure was moved, and the report of the Committee was accepted."

This went on for several days. The Opposition presented a solid phalanx. No words were given or taken. If once in a while a clearly unreasonable reduction was voted, and a moral necessity for explanation arose, it was usually said that the Government was not to be trusted. Other Government bills, the rejection of which was a plain inconsistency on the part of the House, were rejected without greater ceremony. The not unnatural, yet somewhat precipitate, consequence was the dissolution of yesterday. A new election must take place within five months.

An issue has thus been squarely raised between the Government and the Opposition. But there are necessarily two aspects to the contest. There was last year an equally vital Opposition, but there was conspicuously no definite practical issue. The antagonism was quite independent of particular policies or measures. It was a struggle by certain sections unrecognized in the make-up of the Government to secure a place there for their representatives. The clans of Satsuma and Choshu had, since the Restoration, practically monopolized the power. The feeling was that this had gone on long enough, and that a compromise must be reached on the basis of a coalition clan-Cabinet or of party government. But without issues of policy the latter was impossible. To-day, however, issues have arisen. A clan coalition is now an idea of the past; Count Okuma (of the Hizen clan) declares that he will not accept office on that basis. Yet, though definite popu-

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lar issues outwardly exist, the historical origin of the Opposition—personal and clan antagonism—cannot be forgotten. It still underlies all politics. It thus forms the second or inside aspect of the situation, and a few words upon it are necessary.

The difficult question is, Does a desire to oust the individuals—Count Ito and the lesser lights—who now control the Government, form the chief motive of the Opposition, and are the ostensible issues of policy (which will be mentioned later) a mere pretence? On this question I must first present you the statement of Count Okuma, as furnished by him to-day especially for the *Nation*. He says:

"The real point of attack is not the Sat-cho combination, but their deeds during the past twenty-four years. The Opposition thinks that the commercial and industrial policy of the Sat-cho men has on the whole been detrimental to the national interests. They have undertaken works which might better have been left to private enterprise, and the result has for the most part been complete failure. They have favored a few capitalists, selling them Government plants at low prices. They have aimed to further their own prosperity and security, instead of the interests of the people, and have corrupted political morality. They have used Government patronage to crush private competition, by starting new enterprises on a large scale and then selling out to their favorites. Now the Opposition wants, first, to oust the men who are responsible for this; and, second, to reverse this paternal policy and try *laissez-faire* for a while. These undertakings, even if rightly carried out, cost money, and expenditures must be decreased without delay. The Opposition does not desire to forego works of construction absolutely, but to make some opening for a reduction of taxes. Thus, the reduction of the land tax will be the great issue upon which we shall go to the electors. The farmers are in debt to the extent of two hundred millions merely for the necessaries of life, and both the valuation of their lands and the rate of the tax must be lowered. But the Opposition, it must be understood, does not see any reason for changing the Government policy as to expenditures necessary to promote amity with foreign nations. For example, it voted, without hesitation, 650,000 yen for the representation of Japan at the Columbian Exposition. The Opposition will undertake to revise the present treaties, but on a basis of reciprocity."

The Count, as might be expected, refused to prophesy as to the membership of the new Cabinet in the event of a change. It is of course not for me, a disinterested spectator, to question the direct statements of Count Okuma. But those who represent the Government would doubtless say that the historical element of personal and clan antagonism has not yet been entirely eliminated. There is certainly a widespread feeling, they would affirm, that the Sat-cho men have held office long enough, that it is time for them to step down and out, and that the issues of to-day, even though they be real ones, are merely fortunate pretexts upon which to appeal to the people. But even supposing this view to be true, it does not necessarily cast a stigma upon the Opposition. In the opinion of Count Okuma, the time has come when party government is best for the country. He believes that his following commands the national support, and that a change of Government is therefore proper, morally and politically. He is justified, he would say, in employing all legitimate parliamentary tactics to gain his end. On the other hand, the present Government is, from its own point of view, equally justified in not yielding. While doubtless its members are not without the self-regarding sentiments of all men, and, having tasted power, hesitate to resign the hold they have obtained, their argument is that the Opposition is not competent to take the helm; that on the one side are experience and proved capacity, on the other side superficial demagogy and crude impracticability. But, whatever be the true extent of this element of personal rivalry, the parliamentary institution has now forced the contestants to offer to the nation reasons for their respective claims; and here we come to the outward aspect of the situation, the practical issues. With this topic is closely connected the question of the probable decision of the people and the result upon the Cabinet; for it seems to be generally conceded that if the electors do pronounce positively in favor of the Opposition, the present Government will not hesitate to yield.

First and foremost among the living questions is the reduction of the land tax. Here, no doubt, the Opposition has an immense advantage. It requires very little argument to make a voter believe that the party which will reduce a direct tax on his product is the better party. Moreover, the only agricultural voters here will be the rich land-owners, who alone would benefit by the reduction. The tenants and small farmers, who are greatly in the majority, but would be little helped by it, have no appreciable vote. As to the economics of the land tax, I have little doubt that the Opposition seeks a fallacious benefit. The Japanese peasant is no doubt living close to the margin of decent subsistence, sometimes below it. He is a proletarian. But his real bugbears are rent and interest, not taxes. The best opinion, I think I may say, is that the reduction of the land tax would give a scarcely appreciable and at best temporary relief to the cultivator of the soil. The lapse of the small owner into tenancy, the hold of the money-lender upon those who still retain nominal ownership—these are the disheartening economic facts which it will take real statesmanship to deal with. But these facts give no chance for making political capital, and the reduction of the land tax does. Again, the revaluation of the land was the subject of a bill passed last week by the Lower House. This is a living issue, but the advantage here is not entirely with the Opposition. In many districts the valuation is too low, and, although this bill provided that the valuation should nowhere be increased, these localities would lose, under the readjustment, the advantage they now have. With them the lower house has not helped its cause.

On still another bill, that for the Relief of Earthquake-Damaged Districts, the Opposition has made a bad blunder. The Government, during the long recess, appropriated several millions for repairs of dikes, etc., destroyed by the earthquake. But the popular party raised the technical objection that the occasion was not an "emergency" within the meaning of the Constitution, and this item, when laid before the House, was pigeon-holed in committee. A supplementary appropriation for the same purpose was cut down one-third because the estimates were not sufficiently detailed. The Government, however, has refused to abide by this action, and has put both appropriations into force, as it is entitled to do. All this has set the people against the parliamentary Oppositionists; and certainly one cannot imagine a Western party making such a mistake of policy on a non-essential point.

The Government bill for the issue of bonds to aid the purchase of private railways by the State was also rejected by the House. This bill would have released a large amount of capital now locked up in private and unprofitable roads; and, whatever the permanent economic benefit, it would have commanded the support of the commercial class. With them the Opposition has weakened itself. Moreover, Iwasaki, Japan's chief millionaire, is heavily interested in this class of securities, and as he is a co-mate of Count Okuma's, the vote of the House must have proved to him that the Count does not absolutely control the Opposition. Finally, as to the issue above spoken of, that the Sat-cho combination has lined its own pockets by creating favorites on whom patronage is bestowed, it can only be said that Count Okuma himself, up to 1881, was a member of the combination; that the Iwasaki firm, the most prominent example of Government-made merchant princes, notoriously owe their prosperity to the Count's own influence. No doubt there have been good grounds for too many scandals, and no doubt that Okuma, who is now by no means a rich man, is above suspicion of personal profit in such matters. But, in the first place, it is a subject as to which no Japanese leader is able to cast the first stone, and, secondly, the policy in question has, on the whole, developed the resources of the country as no other policy, even though more straightforward, could have done. On the whole, therefore, the Diet has been dissolved at a moment most favorable to the Government, but how far the latter can diminish the present large majority of the Opposition, no one can yet tell.

The interesting query of course is, Who will go in should the Cabinet be changed? Whether Okuma alone will have the making of it, or whether he with Ito will make a joint arrangement, is impossible to say. The former result would be not unlikely, in case a very clear national endorsement should be given; but the difficulty is to find strong men enough to go in with him from the Opposition ranks. The general opinion is that the men who have been talking themselves to the front—such as the long-haired Tanaka, the voluble Arai, the seditious Oi—would never be trusted by the people in office. In Ministerial seats they would be the butt of Tokio. It is a sign of the good sense and sobriety of the people that the political sheets called newspapers have only one-quarter or one-third the circulation of the great commercial news purveyors, the Tokio *Ji-Ji Shimpo* and the Yokohama *Boyeki Shimbun*. The average citizen still venerates the man of experience and fame, the man of the Restoration, as his leader, and such a one he has in Okuma, but in no one else in the Opposition forces (except Count Itagaki, the great agitator for the Constitution in the seventies). With Okuma at the helm, however, the country is safe. His talents as a practical statesman are excelled by no living man in Japan. Who his colleagues in office will be, when he himself will reach that goal, no one can foretell. But party government is coming nearer, as an inevitable step in the evolution of Japanese politics; and the man who will control the first party cabinet will probably be the man who first had the keenness and ingenuity to apply the fable of the bundle of fagots to the problem of Treaty Revision, and, taking the western nations one by one, to try to break the bonds of international compact which still chafe the sensitive spirit of his countrymen.

J. H. W.

Correspondence.

THE RIGHT TO GO TO WAR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As your comments on my letter touch-

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ing the Chilian imbroglio might give the impression of my being an escaped lunatic, I doubt not that the *Nation* will allow me space to set myself right with its readers.

(1.) I agree with you (and have intimated nothing to the contrary) that "if the wrong be manifest, Chili ought to get no worse treatment than England."

(2.) You assert that by a fair trial in the offending country its government has fulfilled its international obligations. But that is not the point. My contention is, that the result of such a trial is not necessarily conclusive on the complaining government; that if it be so (permit me to repeat my words), "however overwhelming the evidence that the finding of facts by the foreign tribunal is contrary to the truth—whether owing to the perjury of witnesses, or the overawing of officials by the populace, or to their own hostile feelings—the complaining government can have no redress."

Chili and the United States being independent nations, you cannot mean that the judgment of a tribunal in one of them is, in the ordinary, technical sense, binding on the other. You refer, of course, to those principles established by the usage of civilized nations that constitute what is known as "international law." But even in this enlarged sense, your position is not tenable. One instance for illustration: A national cruiser captures a vessel of a neutral. The neutral nation claims restitution on the ground that the capture was illegal. The Admiralty court of the cruiser's nation decides, under provisions of its municipal law, that the capture was valid. This judgment, it is well settled, is not binding on the complaining nation.

If you think this case not applicable, here is another illustration: A dispute between two nations is left to arbitration, as in the case of a mixed commission. The arbitrators or the commission constitute an international tribunal, to whose jurisdiction both parties have voluntarily submitted themselves. Here is a case where, if anywhere, the decision should absolutely conclude both parties. But this is the doctrine of our own Government:

> "An award under a treaty, even where the arbitrators have judicial powers, is not binding if shown to be unconscionable and unjust." (Secretary Bayard, Pelletier's Case, January 20, 1887.)

But on this point there is, after all, no disagreement between us. You candidly admit the inconclusiveness of the trial, "if it should be improperly conducted and end in a failure of justice." And you must admit, I think, that if it end in a failure of justice, even if not improperly conducted, the aggrieved nation should not be bound by it.

So much for my interpretation of the doctrine touching the conclusiveness of judgments under international law, which to you seems "so like burlesque."

As to the remedy by arbitration, which you understand to apply "to all trials or disputes before an impartial tribunal," I have only to say that its applicability in any particular case is not a question of international law, but of international ethics, about which there may fairly be two opinions. Let me illustrate: John Doe deals Richard Roe a severe blow. While Richard Roe is drawing back to return the blow with interest, John Doe exclaims, "Let's leave it to arbitration!" The only question is, By which course will Richard Roe be most likely to protect himself against future insults of a similar kind—by returning the blow, or by agreeing to the arbitration?

FRANCIS J. LIPPITT.

WASHINGTON, January 30, 1892.

[What Gen. Lippitt seems to be contending for is the right of every nation to go to war if it pleases, all international rules, usages, or precedents to the contrary notwithstanding. No intelligent person, so far as our knowledge goes, has ever denied this. No nation submits to arbitration, or any other form of settlement, unconditionally. There is, in the forum of international law, no power charged with the duty of enforcing the decisions of any tribunal whatever. Submission to them is a voluntary act always. If we are satisfied that in any arbitration, or in any trial before an admiralty or municipal court, we have been treated with gross injustice, we can always appeal to the sword. This is so plain and well known, so generally assumed in all international controversies, that we have been unable to understand Gen. Lippitt's object in arguing it.—ED. NATION.]

THE ADVENT OF THE AUSTRALIAN BALLOT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of January 14, 1892, appeared a letter from Mr. L. N. Dembitz, in which he claims "the authorship of the first Australian Ballot-Law in the United States"—referring to the Kentucky Act of February 18, 1888, relative to elections in the city of Louisville. This act is familiarly spoken of in Kentucky as "the Wallace Law"; it was introduced by me, and I have been commonly regarded as having had some part in its authorship. As I have without protest permitted this opinion to be entertained, Mr. Dembitz's letter places me in the attitude of having claimed credit which I do not deserve. This is an attitude which I cannot permit myself to occupy. I have never claimed to be the *sole* author of the act mentioned, but have repeatedly and publicly sought to divide such credit as attaches to its authorship with Judge B. F. Buckner, the Hon. Frank Straus, and Mr. L. N. Dembitz. These three gentlemen, together with myself, are the authors of the law, and no one man has the right to make an exclusive claim to its authorship. You will find enclosed herewith an interview on the subject, which appeared in the *Courier-Journal* of January 24 last, and which fully states how and when the Louisville Australian Ballot Law was first conceived by me, and the manner in which, and by whom, it was drawn.

Very truly, ARTHUR M. WALLACE.

LOUISVILLE, KY., January 30, 1892.

[The significant part of the interview referred to is to be found in this extract.—ED. NATION.]

"The fact of the matter is," says Mr. Wallace, "that I got my first idea of applying the Australian ballot system to our elections from an article by Mr. Henry George in the *North American Review* some months before my election to the Legislature. About that time I spoke to Hon F. P. Straus about the matter, and he promised to aid me in drawing such a law if I were elected in the ensuing August election. I next asked Judge B. F. Buckner to give me his opinion on the constitutionality of such a measure, which he did, citing authorities in its favor. . . . We had worked at the bill for fully six weeks when Mr. Dembitz happened in Mr. Straus's office on business. . . . I have only the kindest feeling for Mr. Dembitz, and duly appreciate his interest and valuable aid in assisting me to draw up the bill."

LEE AND EWELL AT GETTYSBURG.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of January 7, reviewing Drake's 'Battle of Gettysburg,' you question the statement made by the author that Gen. Lee went to Ewell on the evening of July 1 to see if the latter could not carry Cemetery Hill, and also the further statement that at the end of the second day Gen. Lee shook his clinched fist at Cemetery Hill. You refer to the matter again in your issue of January 21. You did well to question both statements, for both are erroneous and one absurd.

I was at the time Assistant Adjutant-General of Johnson's division, formerly commanded by Gen. Jackson and called the "Stonewall Division." Late in the afternoon of the 1st, as the division approached Gettysburg, and when it was several miles from the town, Gen. Johnson sent me hurriedly to Gen. Ewell to announce the approach of the division, and to say that he would be ready to attack as soon as he could be put in position. After some miles' ride across country, I found Gen. Ewell and several general officers and his staff with him on a hill overlooking Gettysburg. I remember that Gen. Gordon (now Senator from Georgia) was one of the officers, for, standing by as I gave Johnson's message to Gen. Ewell, he added that if he should be allowed to place his brigade with Johnson's division, they could take that hill (pointing to Cemetery Hill) before dark. Gen. Ewell was, it seemed to me, unusually grave and silent; but, after telling me to direct Gen. Johnson when he got well to the front to wait for orders, he added, "*Gen. Lee is still at Cashtown, six miles in rear.* He directed me to come to Gettysburg, and I have done so. I do not feel like going further or making an attack without orders from him."

No orders to Gen. Johnson looking to an attack that night were issued. What time Gen. Lee reached the town of Gettysburg and met Gen. Ewell, if at all, that night, I do not know—certainly not until after dark. I remember the feeling of disappointment that I and those around me felt at the remarks of Gen. Ewell, put impetuously into words by an officer who had been with me on Gen. Jackson's staff: "Oh, for the presence and inspiration of Old Jack for just one hour!" But Jackson was dead; it took Gettysburg to convince Gen. Lee and the Confederacy of that fateful fact.

As to the little romance anent Gen. Lee's fist-shaking at Cemetery, it is too absurd to be seriously combated. Gen. Lee was doubtless the loftiest, most dignified, self-contained, non-explosive, un-Don-Quixotic gentleman who commanded an army during the war. He would no more have made such an aimless demonstration than Stonewall Jackson would have danced a jig on Sunday. H. K. D.

HAGERSTOWN, MD., February 1, 1892.

Notes.

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS announce 'A Dictionary of Hymnology,' edited by John Julian; 'The Pauline Theology,' by Prof. Geo. B. Stevens; 'The Realm of Nature,' by Hugh R. Mill; 'Germanic Origins: A Study in Primitive Culture,' by Prof. Francis B. Gummere;

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'Oriental Religions and Christianity,' by the Rev. F. F. Ellinwood; and 'Vain Fortune,' a new novel by George Moore.

A. C. Armstrong & Son have nearly ready two new volumes by Perrot and Chipiez, 'History of Art in Persia, Phrygia, Lydia, Caria, and Lycia,' with some 500 illustrations.

Macmillan & Co. are about to issue 'A Guide to Electric Lighting for Householders and Amateurs,' by S. R. Bottone. Mr. John Morley's 'Chatham' and Prof. Beesley's 'Queen Elizabeth' are to be the next volumes in the series of "Twelve English Statesmen."

John Wiley & Sons have in preparation 'Valve-Gears for the Steam-Engine,' by Prof. C. H. Peabody.

Those who remember with pleasure, or remember at all, 'The Recreations of a Country Parson,' by Mr. A. K. H. Boyd—a book of essays somewhat in vogue thirty years ago, but flat as Salisbury Plain, written "Concerning" a number of matters that never were of concern to anybody—may be willing to hear that the reverend author has in press his reminiscences of St. Andrews. The first volume of these, covering the period from 1865 to 1878, will be published at once by Messrs. Longman.

The greater attention given to the subject of English composition in our schools and colleges is shown by the increase of manuals endeavoring to simplify the subject and render it practical. Altogether the best of these recent attempts is Prof. Carpenter's 'Exercises in Rhetoric and English Composition' (Boston: Willard Small). This is a series of sixteen exercises, each on a particular topic, preceded by a summary of the rules and principles applicable to the particular subject in hand. The text thus represents the substance of teaching which a freshman may fairly be expected to compass, and it is set forth with clearness and directness, and brevity so admirable as to make the volume seem almost the realization of that impossible short method of learning to write which has been often sought for, but never with a nearer approach to being found. The author modestly ascribes all this excellence to his own teachers, but older heads are not to be so deceived, and will give him credit for a condensation and arrangement and unfailing practicality which are so rare in such manuals, and at the same time so indispensable, that we do not hesitate to give unreserved commendation to this little book.

Prof. Gilmore also publishes on the same subject a work of somewhat wider scope, 'Outlines of Rhetoric for Schools and Colleges' (Leach, Shewell & Sanborn). He follows more closely the older method, and reduces it to a more formal procedure, which is sufficiently indicated by saying that he divides the subject into inventive rhetoric, founded on logic, and having to do with matter; æsthetic rhetoric, founded on æsthetics, and having to do with form; and ethical rhetoric, founded on ethics, and having to do with the purpose of discourse. Under these various heads he covers the old ground of the nature of argument, of clearness and force and purity, and of figurative language, and he illustrates these matters with well-chosen examples. Such a formal treatment renders the subject more dry, and in our judgment more harsh, than a freer and more plastic treatment, but it shows a clear advance on manuals of the old style.

Private students of literature, as well as college classes, are appealed to by a new advisory volume, similar to several which have already received attention, of which the purpose is to lay down courses of study in such a way that they can be followed to good advantage without personal instruction. The little book by Prof. Winchester, entitled 'Five Short Courses of Reading in English Literature, with Biographical and Critical References' (Boston: Ginn & Co.), takes up courses from Marlowe to Milton, Dryden to Pope, Gray to Burns, Wordsworth to Keats, and Carlyle to Tennyson. First is given a selection of the author's works advised to be read; second, editions are recommended, with additional works to be read; third, works of reference, general, biographical, and critical, are named for each author. Good judgment is shown in the selection, and scholarly information in the survey of works of reference, though perhaps the caution may be excused against minor essayists, whose criticism appears to be referred to rather because it is recent than because it has been found to be sound. The book is free from all unnecessary matter, and, with its blank pages for additional notes, and its specimen examination papers, will be a convenience to instructors as well as to students.

The literature of the theatre is enriched by a sumptuous edition of Churchill's 'Rosciad' and 'Apology' (London: Lawrence & Bullen), with editorial preface and notes by Mr. Robert W. Lowe, and eight full-page illustrations. The editor has done his work with most commendable thoroughness. He has presented the dramatic conditions under which the satire was produced with almost contemporary nearness, restored in the notes the suppressed passages, and recorded the changes made in successive editions, and elucidated the allusions that have grown dark with time. The article in the *Critical Review* which gave rise to the 'Apology,' the sequel of the 'Rosciad,' is reprinted, and there is a useful index of names. The illustrations include portraits of Churchill, Mrs. Pritchard, James Quin, and Mrs. Yates, and of Garrick as *Hamlet* and *Kitely*, Barry as *Macbeth*, and Mrs. Clive as *A Shepherdess*. The edition, which is limited to 400 copies, reaches the acme of "luxury" in fine book-making, being perfect in all material details; and as to the substance of the work, Churchill is certainly represented here at his best, with a satirical talent vigorous though coarse, with a perceptible regard to justice, no little irascibility of temper, and a certain grossness of organization and rude respect that allies him with Dr. Johnson. It is rather as a page of theatrical annals, however, than as literature that the work is interesting, there being more of history and manners in it than of style.

'Selected Poems of Robert Burns' (Scribners), edited by Mr. Andrew Lang, gathers into a beautiful little volume the best of Burns's lyrics and songs, a service well worth attempting for the sake of both poet and reader. Mr. Lang's prefatory essay is a more careful production than is his wont, and, though it strikes one as too apologetic in tone, is an admirable estimate of the man and his work. Mr. Lang seems to think it needful to fall into a quasi-quarrel in behalf of Scott as a rival genius of his native land, and observes that Sir Walter was a man of broader patriotism than Burns and represents more of his country, that he was more kindly, and so on; but the world beyond the Tweed can only look on this as an amusing neighborhood difference, and will take both Scott and Burns without any ado as to which should be dearer to their own people. Similarly, Mr. Lang compares him with Homer, mainly by way of negatives; but to what end? Apollo should not be summoned to hold a sessions of this sort without more excuse. In marking the traits of Burns and the naturalness of his mixed spirit, Mr. Lang is more happy, and in his criticism he makes one or two suggestions of historical interest, as in the paragraph on Ossian as one of the elements in the burst of national feeling which culminated in the two men of genius in Scotch literature; but he gives his praise somewhat as if he deprecated the national enthusiasm for Burns, and were bidding his countrymen not be so obstreperous. Now Burns is not a poet who is best read on one's guard against being carried away.

Mr. William Black has undertaken to assist in producing a uniform edition of his novels, with a little touching up, and the series is begun with 'A Daughter of Heth' (Harpers). The form is handy and the type large; in other respects the manufacture is inexpensive. A photogravure portrait of the author serves as frontispiece.

The fourth of the very beautiful volumes of Landor's 'Imaginary Conversations' as reprinted by J. M. Dent & Co. (New York: Macmillan) and edited by Charles Crump, is before us, leaving but two to come. A most characteristic portrait of Landor at the age of sixty-five from a daguerreotype precedes the continuation of the Dialogues of Literary Men, in three of which he himself figures, with Southey and Archdeacon Hare; the last possessing still a curious interest for purists in the English language and for reformers well or ill advised. Landor stands up for the (American) usage of dropping the *u* in *favor*, *honor*, etc., and writing (with Webster) *theater*, etc., "in their English form." On his part, Archdeacon Hare says, "To *repudiate* was formerly to put away what disgraced us: it now signifies (in America, at least) to reject the claims of justice and honor." Nor is the judgment of contemporary poets in the same dialogue to be overlooked.

A number of annual publications having an approved reputation lie on our table. Seeger & Guernsey's 'Cyclopædia of the Manufactures and Products of the United States' (New York) appears in a second edition for 1891, and has been completely overhauled and reset. It aims to be comprehensive as to the articles produced in this country, with a select list of the firms that make them. In a case like this, the accompanying advertisements very much enhance the value of the work. The 'Cyclopædia' is beautifully printed. It is sufficient to name the 'Banker's Almanac and Register and Legal Directory for 1892' (Homans Publishing Co.), now in its forty-second year; 'Dod's Peerage, Baronetage, and Knightage of Great Britain and Ireland' (Macmillan), now in its fifty-second year, and ranging from princes and peers down to "all persons styled Lord, Lady, or Honorable"; and 'Barker's Facts and Figures' (Frederick Warne & Co.), launched in 1890, but recognized at once as a welcome addition to statistical hand-books. The present issue contains the census of the United Kingdom for April 6, 1891, and the Parliamentary pollings in 1885, 1886, and subsequent bye-elections. A great variety of information is brought compactly together in dictionary form. We may class with the foregoing a quite new compilation, 'The *Scientific American* Cyclopædia of Receipts, Notes, and Queries,' edited by Albert A. Hopkins (Munn & Co.). This is the garnering of nearly half a century's accumulations in the journal named in the title, and fills more than 600 octavo pages of fine print. Cough medicines, pills, cosmetics, pomades,

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wrinkles, beers, syrups, soaps, preserving, cleansing, dyeing, bread (aerated), ice-cream, proof-reading, photography, microscopy, etching, electro-metallurgy, pyrotechny—almost everything is to be found in this volume, subject to the searcher's discrimination over and above the editor's.

D. Appleton & Co. send us their revised 'Handbook of Summer Resorts,' and the Messrs. Longman the third edition of Charles Ledyard Norton's excellent and comely 'Handbook of Florida,' which has been decidedly improved by an index. Of all the topics there mentioned, that of phosphates probably has the greatest significance for the future of the peninsula. In connection with these guides we may pertinently speak of C. V. Hine's 'On the Indian River' (Chicago: Chas. H. Sergel & Co.) and 'In Biscayne Bay,' by Caroline Washburn Rockwood (Dodd, Mead & Co.)—the one a story of a canoe voyage, the other (in the guise of a novel) of a yachting voyage, in the respective waters of the east coast. Both are somewhat rhapsodical, and both have attractive photographic illustrations.

Rand, McNally & Co. catch at the wave of present interest in southern South America by reproducing from their 'Indexed Atlas of the World' a map of the Argentine Republic, Paraguay, Uruguay, and Chili. The scale is seventy miles to the inch, and the map is folded to pocket size.

A new weekly, literary and artistic in its aims, the *Mahogany Tree*, appeared at Boston with the new year. The first few numbers of such a venture rarely afford grounds for an exact and infallibly just appreciation of it. In the present instance they produce the impression of a certain jaunty, amateurish cleverness not wholly unpleasing. The typography of the paper is to be praised—save for the rather sprawling title-page; its character is French, or of a French-like sort, graceful, and perhaps clear enough, though somehow it has the air of being crowded. The first number printed at length Thackeray's "Ballad of the Mahogany Tree."

The prospectus of another new venture, this time a quarterly review of high aspirations, is now being sent out. It is to be called the *Knight Errant*, and devoted to criticism of all the arts, "working to this end without hope or, indeed, desire of pecuniary return." The expenses of the first year are assumed by forty guarantors. Only five hundred (numbered) copies will be printed at present, but the proprietors reserve the right to increase the issue at the beginning of the second year, should this seem advisable. The first number will appear in February, and will be in royal quarto form, with wide margins, printed from a special type upon a hand-made special linen paper. It will be mailed flat, between boards, to its subscribers. We fail to find in the lines of the handsome prospectus, or between them, any definite intimation of the course which the *Knight Errant* is likely to follow.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will publish in March the first number of the *New World*, "a quarterly review of religion, ethics, and theology." It will be under the charge of an editorial committee consisting of Profs. Charles Carroll Everett and Crawford Howell Toy of Harvard; the Rev. Orello Cone, D.D., President of Buchtel College, and the Rev. Nicholas Paine Gilman (managing editor). The new periodical will have 200 pages in each issue, a fourth of which will be given to the careful review of important books in its field.

We must also direct attention to the new *Philosophical Review* (Ginn & Co.), edited by Prof. J. G. Schurman of Cornell, a bi-monthly. The first number contains a paper, by Benjamin Ives Gilman, on such an out-of-the-way topic as the "Psychological Aspects of the Chinese Musical System"; and the department of book reviews is noticeable, as well as the "Summaries of Articles." The *Thinker*, "a review of world-wide Christian thought," comes to us from James Nisbet & Co., London, with its summaries of "Current English Thought," "Current American Thought," etc., and its reviews. Finally, one may wish well to *School and College*, "devoted to secondary and higher education," monthly, except during two summer months, edited by Ray Greene Huling, and published in Boston by Ginn & Co. All these magazines are very presentable in appearance.

The appearance of the first part of Dr. Paul Fredericq's 'Geschiedenis der Inquisitie in de Nederlanden' (Ghent: J. Vuylsteke) accentuates one's regret at the mishap of mankind in the confusion of tongues. The author's position of an acknowledged master of the subject, and the inherent interest and importance of the long struggle for freedom of conscience in the Low Countries, invest the work with no common claims on the attention of all students of history who are fortunate enough to possess familiarity with the Hollandish in which it is written. Even those not thus happily gifted can appreciate from the footnotes and references the conscientious labor which has gathered its materials from all accessible sources, and can find in them a satisfactory guide to the bibliography of the theme.

The most effective pamphlet that has yet been written on the woman question has just appeared as the latest number of the series of *Zeit- und Streitfragen*. It is written by Hedwig Bender, whose valuable contributions to philosophy, and especially to the modern forms of Spinozism, we have already had occasion to chronicle. It is entitled "Frauenwünsche und Frauenbestrebungen." Its simplicity and force, its freedom from exaggeration, and its moving quality are such as are not often found equalled in any argumentative writing, and still less often, perhaps, in writing on this very subject. If Germany had had many writers like this, German women would not now be the stunted, Chinese-like, fancy-work-making machines that they are. The book deserves translation. Although it is especially written to meet German conditions, it is, unfortunately, not without much scope for application in other lands as well.

The Legislature of Barbados has voted £500 for putting in order the ancient records of that colony. In supporting the vote, Mr. Knollys, the Colonial Secretary, said: "In one book especially which struck him, here and there the minutes had been entirely painted over with something like printer's ink. It was found out that those were the minutes of the Council during the period of the Commonwealth, when Oliver Cromwell was in power; and after the accession of Charles II., the early settlers of Barbados blotted out all the minutes which were signed by the Governor who was appointed by Oliver Cromwell." The Governor referred to was Daniel Searle, who held office from 1652 to 1660.

—Dr. Gould and Prof. Pickering of Cambridge, Profs. Upton of Providence, Todd of Amherst, Safford of Williamstown, Newton of New Haven, Boss of Albany, Young of Princeton, Holden of the Lick Observatory, and many other astronomers of America, have united in a memorial to Congress calling attention to the question of the future administration of our Navy's new Observatory, the buildings of which are now being completed on a scale and at an expense which have never before been equalled. The magnitude of the appropriations for this purpose made by four successive Congresses may be regarded as expressing the popular will that the nation should have an astronomical observatory second to none in the value and interest of its work. It is greatly to be regretted that money and buildings have not secured this end in the past, and there seems to be no reason for assurance that the future will show anything different. The so-called Naval Observatory, originally a "depot of charts and instruments," has existed for years without a scientific head, its superintendent being appointed, with frequent and disastrous changes, from the line officers of the Navy. Occasionally this method of routine appointment has secured a good executive head for the Observatory, but as a rule the "line" of the Navy have regarded the Superintendency as a capital shore-billet, and have successfully resisted the repeated attempts at a change of management. Such change is now, however, favored by the Secretary of the Navy, and it is clearly a wise one; for without a scientific head, a well-considered plan for prosecuting scientific research is obviously impossible. Even supposing the Observatory to possess a body of the ablest astronomers, if they are thrown together without adequate guidance, and without any problem to solve, they can hardly achieve success. The movement to place in the position of Superintendent the ablest and most accomplished astronomer who will accept this office, may be expected to institute a concerted plan of work which will restore the Observatory to the respect and confidence of the scientific men, as well as of the legislators, of the country.

—That the lack of competent expert direction of the Observatory has been harmful to the interests of science, is prominently demonstrated by the fact that more than a half-million of dollars has been expended in mere buildings and equipment without consideration of their adaptability to any specific lines of research. Of course if a new observatory was to be built at all, this condition of things had to be, because the establishment and its corps of astronomers have no specific instructions to work out any problem, but are pegging away at space pretty much in general. No private business concern would spend $50,000 annually in this haphazard manner, and there appears to be no sufficient reason why a Government observatory should be managed by unsound business methods. But the new Superintendent, whoever he may be, will find himself hampered by the costly outfit imposed upon him; and the inability to undertake modern lines of work with inappropriate instruments cannot fail to prove an embarrassment. It may be expected, however, that this great responsibility will not burden the willing shoulders of a single astronomer who may accept the directorship, as the proposed new management will include the organization of an advisory council of five members, who are, among other things, to draw up and modify the programme of scientific work, and make the necessary inspections and reports. No harm to science would be done if the council were vested with authority to overhaul the Observatory corps also.

—We learn from the January number of the London *Artist* that an attempt, unhappily

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without success so far, has lately been made in London to form a company for the purpose of reopening and working once more the marble quarries in the island of Paros which were so famous in old times. Specimens of the marble, recently obtained, have been submitted to various sculptors, who praise highly the fine rosy color and beautiful grain of the stone, accounting it in many respects superior to the marble of Carrara. But it seems that there are a good many British interests vested in the Carrara quarries, and great difficulty was found in the attempt to raise money to float what would be a rival company. Still, since besides its intrinsic advantages the Parian stone will be the less costly, it appears to be likely that capital will be attracted to the venture. The *Artist* also announces that the full number of Mr. Whistler's Venice series of etchings has at last been printed. There were twelve plates in all, and Mr. Whistler, somewhat rashly it would seem, undertook to print one hundred copies of them—an unnecessary number, if Rembrandt's example is to go for anything. Mr. Whistler appears to have recognized his mistake, for the Venice etchings, which at first appeared in considerable numbers, have of late years come from the press only in driblets of three or four at a time. The full number of impressions from four of the plates was complete some time ago, and the plates were broken up. The last few months have been devoted by Mr. Whistler to the remaining eight plates, and the complete series is now finished. This is not merely a publication of more impressions. Mr. Whistler has gone over the plates and modified and elaborated to the extent of almost transforming them. He has taken out figures and added them, and dealt generally "with a large free hand," entering into the work with "unprejudiced freshness and freedom." No doubt the world will be a gainer by this bold and unconventional performance, even though the collectors murmur at it.

—In no one way, next to army organization, has France shown a stronger determination to right herself since the disasters of 1870 than in the matter of education. Those desirous of realizing how much has been achieved, and how deep and wide is the foundation being laid for insuring that all French citizens shall grow up well instructed, should consult Prof. Teegan's exhaustive little treatise on 'Elementary Education in France' (London: Simpkin, Marshall & Co.). The author's experience in educational matters, in connection with the National System of Education in Ireland, enabled him to avail himself to the full of special facilities for inquiry afforded him by the French educational authorities. The advance since the days of the Revolution is traced. Ten chapters are devoted to a description of the system at present in existence—like most French systems, uniform and bureaucratic if comprehensive, almost reminding us of the box-puzzles of our childhood, in the putting together of which no piece can be omitted, and all must be in order. The system is traced from the period when at two years of age a French child may enter an *École Maternelle* to when, as a successful pupil, he may pass on from an *École Supérieure* to a public employment or State office. Statistics and programmes of studies are laid before us, and the system is fully explained under which the schools are supported and teachers are trained, appointed, and paid. Studying Prof. Teegan's volume and realizing all that has been achieved since 1786, and the intelligence and education now broadening over France, we little wonder that the horrors of the revolutions are being more and more forgotten in the immense benefits from the change now being garnered by the citizens of the republic.

—In a volume of 200 pages entitled 'Die Thierquälerei in der Strafgesetzgebung des In- und Auslandes' (Berlin: Liebmann), a German jurist, Robert von Hippel, gives an "historical, dogmatic, and critical" survey of European and American penal legislation for the protection of the lower animals against the cruelty of man, together with suggestions for the modification of the laws of the German Empire on this subject. England was the first Christian country to enact laws for the prevention of cruelty to animals. The Prussian Capt. Archenholz, in his work on 'England und Italien' (Leipzig, 1785), speaking of the former country, says: "Among the queer laws of this land are two which are not found in any other European code, and by which penalties are imposed for profane swearing and for merciless cruelty to cattle. With apparent inconsistency, however, cock-fighting is not punished, since, in the eyes of Englishmen, the cocks do not play a passive part, but fight willingly in self-defence." By an act of Parliament passed in 1835, cock-fighting, bull-baiting, and other brutal sports of this sort were also made punishable by a fine. As a rule, the Continental countries of Europe have been very slow in making adequate provision for the prevention of cruelty to animals. In this respect French legislation is still extremely defective; the imperial code of Germany punishes offences of this kind only when they excite public scandal—an absurd limitation, which our author wishes to have removed; Italy, it is true, has taken a decided step in advance by Zanardelli's law, which went into effect January 1, 1890; but in Spain, Portugal, Greece, Russia, and the interjacent States, there has been little or no general legislation on the subject. Dr. Hippel discusses the question of the rights of animals from juristic and ethical points of view, with a concise survey of the literature relating to it, including the theories of Kant, Schopenhauer, Abegg, Hommel, Henke, and other philosophical and legal authorities, and regards the extreme anti-vivisection move as unwise and injurious.

KIPLING'S BEAST AND MAN IN INDIA.

Beast and Man in India. By John Lockwood Kipling, C.I.E. Macmillan. 1891.

"My father!" said Rudyard Kipling—"all I have, all I am, I owe entirely to him." That father is the author of the book before us. You cannot read much in it without seeing that both son and father were debtors to each other, and that with mutual advantage.

A law for the prevention of cruelty to animals was recently made by the Council of India. By many in England it was declared superfluous, like sending owls to Athens or coals to Newcastle. Mr. Kipling was thus roused to correct a popular misapprehension. After devoting his best years to Indian service, he had returned, *spoliis Orientis onustus*, to spend the sabbath of his years in England. He could show from personal knowledge that, in Hindu dealings with brutes, cruelty is the rule and kindness a rare exception. His testimony is of this sort: The natives leave a turkey to bleed to death for half a day with intent to bleach the flesh. Tail-twisting is so common that the greater part, probably, of Indian oxen have their tails permanently dislocated by this practice. At some village festivals the whole population turn out to beat a buffalo till he dies. Semi-starvation is the lot of most captive elephants. The post-horses of native contractors are seldom started without tortures which tear their ears and noses beyond healing. Native cruelty is aggravated by many false notions. Thus, goats are flayed alive in the belief that skins stripped from living animals have a better quality than others. The nostrils of a donkey are slit in hopes to soften his voice, and his ears are split from "pure cussedness," without any pretence of a reason. When a cow is sick, doctors shave off the papillæ at the root of her tongue, slit her ears, and brand her with the signature of a god. Brahmanical damnation is denounced for cow-killing, yet a man is guiltless who inserts under her skin a thorn so poisoned that she pines away slowly and so dies many times before her death. A horse who had broken a leg, as seen by a recent traveller, had been left alive for three days among crows, who had already picked out both his eyes and were eating other tender parts. No Hindu would kill the horse, for fear that the soul of his own grandfather, imprisoned in the carcass, gave it the breath of life. Bridle-bits, called "thorns," as drawn by Mr. Kipling, out-Herod most torture tools in the Nuremberg chamber of horrors. Facts like these evince that humanitarian legislation is nowhere more needed than in India, as well as that Lecky's conclusion that Hindus surpass Christians in consideration for animals is ill-grounded.

But it soon became clear to our author that the popular error he strove to correct was only a fraction of English misconceptions of Indian life, especially in relation to animals. Hence his book. At first glance it might be deemed the hasty product of a day. The truth is that it was produced, not extempore, but *ex omni tempore*. It was not made at all; it grew, and was finished, all but writing the words, before the first line was penned. The author lived in India for a generation. As a Yorkshire boy he had been a keen observer of English birds and beasts. From his entering Hindustan he made its new and strange fauna his darling study. For years he kept tame ravens, hillcrows, banana-eating bats, or flying foxes as household pets, feeding them from a plate in his hand. He tamed a huge lizard, and would hold it in his hand, though natives called it deadly. Daily for months were he and his family interested in a troop of wild monkeys which they regularly fed, trying them with very various foods. He accompanied natives in hunts for field rats, which they dug out. He went out in the hawking parties of falconers. The flight of birds—particularly the evolutions of pigeons wheeling on the wind, and their settling down from flight—were in his view among the most fascinating things in life. Then he became curator of a museum where the whole Indian fauna, alive and dead, was always before his eyes. More than all, as the head of the Mayo Art School at Lahore, the most successful institution of its class in the Orient, he could not be neglectful of the animal-forms around him. It was much when *Hamlet* "fell to such perusal of *Ophelia's* face as he would draw it." Kipling did draw the creatures which he was required to teach his pupils to draw, as well as to criticise their artistic essays. It is no wonder, then, that seventy-one of the ninety-four illustrations in his volume are creations of his own pencil.

While teaching pupils zoölogical drawing, he was wise enough to learn from them many a lesson regarding animal relations, habits, and treatment. From this source, and in converse with intelligent natives (since he was no stran-

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ger to their strange tongue), he became rich in proverbs and other outcrops of indigenous notions regarding both beasts of the field and fowls of the air. On the whole, few men's surroundings and whole manner of life could so well equip them for portraying the beasts of India and their human relations. Kipling's crowning merit lies in seeing that, thanks to the Indian stage of culture being similar to that of the Æsopic era, bestial and human life are closely interlocked, and in making the most of that connection.

The bestiary of India here treated, in addition to Oriental types of English domestic beasts, includes monkeys, buffaloes, elephants, camels, and jackals, besides birds and reptiles. The proverbs, which are as numerous as the pages, are sometimes odd analogues of those in Occidental lands, and always elucidate Oriental peculiarities. Some are pathetic, "sweat-and-blood axioms born of penury and edged with despair." "A monkey with a snake in his hand" answers to our catching a Tartar. "A monkey with a cocoanut in his hand" denotes one who has a good thing but can get no good out of it. "Can there be no daylight if the cock does not crow?" snubs a pompous declaimer. "Six handfuls to the cow-calf, one to the ox," was born of the precept, "Love the cow, hate the ox." A low estimate of females is betrayed by the saw, "Drums and women are better for beating."

No writer has made more felicitous use of folk-lore which so photographs the traits of common folk. The gait of a peacock is admired; hence a man limping with sciatica binds a peacock's feather on his leg, with full assurance that he can thus walk with less pain. One wonders that monkeys, and pests still more mischievous, not only are household pets, but have free course in their pranks. His wonder ceases when he learns that they are a sort of lightning-rods which attract to themselves all the ill-luck that may be hovering about the house. As to the ass, whose Hindu name is "roarer," it is believed that he brays *because he has a vision of Satan*, a satanophany. Moslems have also a legend that when the donkey was recalcitrant about entering the ark, Noah beat him, crying: "Go in, and the devil go with you!" Afterwards Noah, who had supposed Satan to be drowned, espied him safe on board. When he demanded the reason of the intrusion, the answer was: "I came by your own invitation—which was to go with the donkey." Many mythical bits in a similar strain—sparks from a working-engine, not fireworks for display—elucidate Kipling's themes, and might well form a supplement to the 'Arabian Nights.'

The chapter on elephants will shock teetotalers. They will there learn that the beast who shares most in human reason finds most cheer and comfort in a tipsy-cake in which rum, brandy, or arrack is the main ingredient. Again, we read: "It is recorded by an American trainer that elephants left entirely to themselves have been seen to rehearse the lessons they have learned." This story is set down among those rather beyond belief, and it doubtless struck the author as a Yankee hoax, or at least a new thing under the sun. But we have it in Pliny the Elder, viii. 3: "It is certain," he says, "that an elephant dull in learning what he was taught, and therefore punished, was discovered by night practising those same things which he had been taught (*eadem illa meditantem noctu*)." The things taught were movements in the style of dancers and gymnasts. Plutarch (*De Solertia Animalium* sec. xii.) furnishes further details concerning this same elephantine sagacity, and adds: "The dull scholar was seen all alone by moonlight going through his lessons again, and rehearsing them." Mr. Kipling, after telling us that "the handed one" is a Sanskrit name for elephant, gives the saying, "When the handed one puts forth his handiness, man is but a fly before him." He cites Tennyson's "Serpent-handed" as if the compound had originated with the Laureate. It is at least as old as Lucretius, who more than once calls the elephant *anguimanus* (ii., 538, v. 1302).

"The reported existence of wild camels in Arizona" (here called a *State*) seems to Mr. Kipling "a fabulous or jocular illustration of American character." He says, however, that if the story is not true it ought to be. The tale would have been more credible to him had he known that camels were actually imported in scores from both Africa and Asia by the United States Government. These ships of the desert came to land at Indianola, and in 1857 navigated the whole breadth of Texas to El Paso, which is scarcely a hundred miles from Arizona. They and their offspring were distributed in various forts. On marches or at military posts some of them must have become estrays, and may now very naturally range the sands of Arizona. Mr. Kipling's American allusions, by the way, are so flattering that he might be suspected of catering for an American market. His motto is from Walt Whitman. He quotes Bryant, and named his favorite monkey "Uncle Remus." He praises the novel 'East Angels.' He finds tales analogous to those in 'The Wayside Inn.' American boxers and tiger-tamers are in his view no whit behind the English, and Americans need no teaching about horses. He must hold that America is, or will soon be, Greater Britain.

The pages on dogs will be a dainty to all who have either owned or loved them. Mr. Kipling complains that the sacred writings of Hindu, Moslem, and Christian, all alike lack recognition of canine services. At last, however, he brings forward something of the kind from Moslem and Hindu books, but nothing from the Bible. But while sojourning so long *in partibus infidelium* he has forgotten the Scripture of his childhood, and so speaks more than once of the calf of *Moses*. He has forgotten Tobit, a book which a majority of Christians have never separated from the Testaments as apocryphal. Otherwise he would have told us about the dog of the young man Tobias that went forth with him all the way from Persia to Media and back again to his home, as far even as his guardian angel did. This service is clearly viewed as praiseworthy. The same may be said of the dogs who came and licked the sores of Lazarus. One other testimonial to a good canine characteristic, approved by Moslems and many Christians, must have been unknown to our author; else would he have extolled it as a plea alike truthful, charitable, and irrefragable. We refer to a legend in the Persian poet Nisami. It relates that Jesus stood at the gate of a city when the vilest cur there had been stoned and was dragged out at the tail of an ass amid the execrations of the mob. When Jesus was asked what he thought of the carcass, his reply was: "Pearls cannot rival the whiteness of his teeth."

'Beast and Man' is a title suggested by the ancient signboard at inns, "Entertainment for Man and Beast." Kipling will entertain every man who reads him, and would still more entertain every beast who could understand his demonstrations that brutes have rights which men are bound to respect.

THE PHILOLOGICAL SOCIETY'S DICTIONARY.

A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles, etc. Edited by James A. H. Murray, B.A., Lond., etc. Part VI. Clo-Consigner. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1891.

For consecutive reading, if the phrase be allowable, this part of the great Dictionary is less interesting than its predecessors. In our vast English vocabulary there are streaks as in the ocean, and what obviously distinguishes the present is the Romance compounds with co-, col-, com-, con-, filling 200 pages, with more still to come. But, besides this unappetizing array, one-quarter of the main words are obsolete, we are told. Then, from the editor's point of view, this section of the alphabet is remarkable as having furnished hitherto the greatest number of bogus words yet met with, as will by and bye be demonstrated in an appendix, and is here typically illustrated in the case of *cherisaunce* for the confusion of a critic of Part V. Finally, for no previous section have the common dictionaries been so deficient and erroneous.

The solid advantage, for etymology, of proceeding on historical principles is pungently intimated under *cog*, "tooth of a wheel," where we read: "The Celtic words, Ir., Gael. *cog*, Welsh *cocas*, uncritically cited as the probable source, are (as usual in such cases) from English." Under *conscience* is admirably unfolded the "gradual individualizing and personification" of the word in the sense of an inward moral monitor and deity. Under *commence*, *commencement*, *commencer*, *commencing*, is supplied an explanation of the seeming paradox of denominating the close of a college term a "Commencement." To *commence* in this sense is "to take the full degree of master or doctor *in* any faculty at a university," being a translation from the Latin *incipere*. The very earliest quotation chances to combine the ideas of dismissal (license) and beginning (1387): "By a statute of the universite of Oxenford whan eny man is i-congyed there to commence in eny faculte." Trevisa's *i-congyed*, by the way, invites mention of the substantive *congee*, both from the fact of its curious phonetic decay from the Latin *commeatus*, 'a passage, a furlough,' and because "from the fifteenth to the seventeenth century the word was completely naturalized, and bade fair to descend into modern English as *congy*; but since the Restoration . . . . there has been a growing tendency to treat the word as French" and restore its French form. A pseudo-French form has even been simulated in the case of *confidant*, since 1700, perhaps to indicate the French pronunciation of "confident"; and it is surmised that the feminine form *confidante* arose first.

Fourteen pages are given up to *cock* and *cockle* and their compounds and derivates, and a wonderful labyrinth it is. *Cock* (like *clock*, which perhaps never meant 'bell' in English) is an "echoic" word, and was a century late in reaching England from the northern home of the Gallic bird. Our term *rooster* we took from our Kentish forefathers. There is a long discussion of the obscure etymology of *cock-a-hoop*, and it is still uncertain whether to connect it with a spigot and a tavern, or with the fowl which the German analogy justifies our thinking (stop-)*cock* to have got its name from. Dr. Murray's identification, also through the German, of *cockney* with "cocks' eggs," is well known, but a shade of dubiety perhaps still hangs over it. *Cockatrice* receives

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the most elaborate treatment as to its origin, and furnishes an extraordinary tale of confusion in natural history. Capt. John Smith (1624) gave us *cockroach* in an alleged Spanish form, "cacarootch." May we identify with the tomato Browne's Jamaica (1756) "Love Apple and Cockroach Apple. . . . The smell of the apples is said to kill cockroaches"? *Cock-sure* was a word "originally perfectly dignified, and habitually used in the most solemn connexions," the sureness being objective. In the course of two centuries and a half, as measured by the quotations, it acquired a subjective and ridiculous sense, as when Lord Melbourne said he wished he was "as cock-sure of anything as Tom Macaulay is cock-sure of everything." The "*cockles* of the heart" remain a mystery; the editor wisely refraining from adopting the explanation that likens the shape of the heart to a cockleshell.

The word *come* occupies nearly eight pages (twenty-three columns), and "breaks the record" in respect of expansiveness. No better example could be afforded of the minuteness of differentiation in shades of meaning which is carried in this dictionary to an extent never before known. It is also noteworthy for its illustrations of the prepositional connections, for which foreigners ought to be grateful. To *come to* (out of a swoon) was used as far back as 1572, in Knox's 'History of the Reformation,' and has probably been a popular expression ever since, but the next quotation happens to be from Marryat (1832), and the next from Dickens (1861). *Come-at-able* is as old as 1687. We should have had the spelling "cum" but for the vice of the Middle English scribes in writing *o* for *u* before *m*, *n* and *u* (*v*). So *comptroller* is an erroneous spelling introduced about 1500; and the *a* in *cocoanut* was faultily inserted by Johnson.

The various spellings of *coffee* all but embrace one ("*kauphy*") which contains not a single letter of the accepted form; we find *cauphe*. Evelyn (1636) is first cited for our modern mode, though Capt. John Smith approached it with *coffa*. *Cod*, the fish, is of purely English origin, and comes to the surface in a statute of Edward III., 1357; but, "parent of sweetest *sounds*, yet mute forever," it refuses to tell how it got its name. *Coal* ("se cole") was so designated as early as 1253; the substance itself ("carbonem maris") was known still earlier. *Compass* is of uncertain origin; it is first met with in 1515, and *commerce* arises still later (1587), with the accent on the second syllable as late as 1702. From Jefferson is taken the first use of *commissariat* in the military sense (1779). The *color-sergeant* owes his being to the Peninsular War, where feats of bravery by non-commissioned officers called for some recognition (General Order July 27, 1813). *Conservative*, the party name superseding Tory, was Croker's invention, on January 1, 1830. All needful historical data are given about our own *Congress*.

Americanisms are of course plentifully noted. Dana, in his 'Three Years before the Mast,' gave currency to the phrase *club together;* and the *clubbing* of newspapers for lower rates is a Yankee notion. We say *coal-hod* for "coal-box"; and *cologne* for *cologne water;* and write *connection* for *connexion*. But we must not pride ourselves on the boodlers' *combine*, for the word was used in England in 1610 to denote 'a plot, a conspiracy'; nor the intransitive *collide*, which Dryden employed in 1700, yet "when first used of railway trains or ships in collision, in 1860–'70, it was much objected to as an Americanism"; nor *compete*, a word not in Johnson, though handy to Bishop Hall in 1620, and in 1824 "styled 'a Scotticism,' and 'an American discovery.'" That awful ban still holds our British cousins aloof from our most tempting inventions, as when a reviewer in the *Athenæum* quotes from our chroniclers of "the wheel" the word *coast*, and sighs, "Why have we not got this convenient term?" The word *half-cocked*, we observe, is attributed to the Australians, by a clear penman's or typographical error, since the first quotation is from Irving (1809), and this slang is perhaps not quite obsolete with us. Then, why should *closetless*, with a single (American) quotation, be deemed rare, and *cockless* with a single (British) quotation not be similarly branded? Under *confederate* we find embalmed the propagandist purpose of the Slave Power, in the outspoken provision of the Constitution of the Confederacy that "in all such [new] territory the institution of slavery as it now exists in the Confederate States shall be recognized."

We had set down a long list of names of American writers cited in this instalment of the Dictionary, from Franklin to 'Mrs. Rohrer's Cook-book,' from *Harper's Magazine* to the *American Miller* and the Wisconsin *Republican;* but our diminishing space admonishes us: We must pass, too, without remark, such entries as *cold cream*, *common good*, *common lawyer*, *con moto*, and close with a word or two about the literary aspect of the quotations. To a fair extent we encounter the familiar quotations of our great writers —under *compound* (vb.) the verse from 'Hudibras' that will occur to everybody; *compute*, from Burns; *concord* (sb.), from Milton; *condition* (sb.), from Pope; *confabulate*, from Cowper; *confirmation*, from Shakspere. But we miss under *cock-and-bull* the closing sentence of 'Tristram Shandy'; under *colonel*, Milton's opening line of his sonnet, "Captain, or colonel, or knight in arms," if only to illustrate the trisyllabic pronunciation; under *complexion*, Gray's "To this complexion thou must come at last," if, indeed, there is there any mention of the meaning here exemplified; under *conscience*, Clough's "bare conscience of the better thing." Under *color*, some American reader for the Dictionary ought to have sent in, for "give color to," the historic satire of John Quincy Adams on his would-be censors in the House, who charged him with having "given color to the idea that slaves have the right of petition." We do not know that Dr. Murray has any reason to complain of his American colaborers, even if in the sum (on this side of the water) they fall short of the assistance rendered single-handed by their countryman, Dr. Fitzedward Hall, who has regularly read the proofs, and "added hundreds of the most valuable quotations" from his inexhaustible storehouse.

It will not be uninstructive to close with a point of grammar. The intransitive use of the verb *commence*, with infinitive, "to begin *to do* anything [OF. *cumencer à*]," is shown to have been very old—in the 'Orfeo' (1320) and the 'Lai de Freine' (1326). The first modern instance is from Pope's 'Dunciad' (1742); and Landor, Helps, Lytton, and Jevons are cited in the present century. The editor follows these with a note: "This construction has been objected to by stylists, who prefer *begin* before *to*." Americans, strange to say, are the chief care-takers of the language on this occasion—Mr. Geo. P. Marsh (1862) and Dr. F. Hall (1873); Miss Yonge being enlisted on their side (1876). What is to be noted is, that the plan of this Dictionary affords no secure ground for concluding as to the *weight* of authority determinative of the best usage. *Continuity* from century to century is denoted by the quotations; but we have no means of judging how far the writers selected stand for the majority of the class who set the style. Any one, indeed, may say, "What was good grammar to Pope or Landor or Helps is good enough for me." Another may even go back to the Old French for justification, just as he answers objections to the use of the word *individual* for "person" by saying that the French have found it convenient; or of *over* for "more than," by reference to German analogy—being resolved not to let foreign tongues surpass our own in resources. Nevertheless, any one familiar with Dr. Hall's supremacy as a recorder of usage, and desirous to side with the élite, would let his objection *prima facie* outweigh all Dr. Murray's examples. But, to avoid the appearance of dogmatism, he should turn to the discussion in Dr. Hall's 'Modern English.'

TAYLOR'S FACTORY SYSTEM.

The Modern Factory System. By R. W. Cooke Taylor, H. M. Inspector of Factories. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co. 1891.

THE office held by this author has imposed upon him a reticence that has seriously limited the scope of his work. He has felt it decorous to abstain from using information or experience gained in his capacity as inspector, and has even gone so far as to give a preference to quotations at second hand over those from original sources. As a result of this delicacy—which seems a little exaggerated—we learn nothing whatever of the actual operation of the English factory acts. For information of this character it is necessary to refer to the official reports of the inspectors of factories, which are of course sealed books to the public. The diligent reader, however, can extract from these pages much that is of interest as bearing upon the modern tendency to return to the mediæval policy of statutory regulation of the conditions of industry.

This statutory regulation by what is known as factory legislation was, as Mr. Taylor shows, brought about under the influence of many causes. There was a great religious revival in the eighteenth century, followed by "almost as rich a crop of humanitarian projects as bids fair to mark the closing years of this one, and a more luxuriant crop certainly than has marked any equally definite period of our national history before or since. It was a time of great ferment on all subjects of social concern—the era of criminal reform, of prison reform, of the first effort for negro emancipation, for popular education, of the first attempt to protect 'climbing boys.' The spirit of philanthropy and fraternity, the characteristic spirit of the European Revolution, was abroad, and still alert and confident." In truth, the mass of the English population was debased and brutalized, and the more enlightened class was just awakening to that fact and to its own responsibilities in the matter. There is no reason to suppose that the introduction of factories either caused new abuses or aggravated those that existed; but it made these abuses more conspicuous, and at the same time brought them within reach of legislative control. Mr. Taylor quotes with approbation the statement of a historian of the textile industries that the system of infant labor "was at its worst and greatest height before any one thought of a

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factory." In fact, the case of the chimney-sweeps is sufficient to show that the air of the factory has no especially predisposing influence towards cruelty.

The earlier factory acts, the first being passed in 1802, were intended to check some outrageous abuses to which apprentices, especially pauper apprentices, were subjected. The protective, or rather prohibitory, duties of that period, especially upon grain, made the food of the people scarce, while the maleficent Poor-Law made the people numerous. The Government therefore adopted a policy contrary to the proverbial rule of the Almighty to send bread for every mouth: it multiplied the mouths and reduced the bread. The resulting misery was aggravated by a frightful load of taxation, so that the working-people of England were ground between the upper and the nether millstone. Having bred pauper children like rabbits, the authorities hit upon the ingenious plan of farming out their labor to manufacturers, with results which were sufficiently ghastly.

By some mysterious process of reasoning, Mr. Taylor has reached the conclusion that this state of affairs was the ideal of political economy. At a time when legislation was dictated by landlords; when restrictions of every kind were laid upon industry; when a workman could not legally go out of his parish to get employment; when his wages were legally fixed by magistrates, and when the Statute of Apprentices was still in force, Mr. Taylor informs us that status had "succumbed to contract," that "combination had almost wholly succumbed to competition," and that the conditions of labor were "politically free." Very naturally he lays it down that competition has "for its utmost purpose but to secure that the weakest goes to the wall"; and that perfect liberty of action not only allows but assures economical despotism. As to the results to laborers of the introduction of machinery which made labor of the kind to which they were used unnecessary, he observes: "The benefits from the machines went to the owner first, and the consumer afterwards, the unemployed wage-laborer clearly coming within neither category." These somewhat questionable propositions are explained by the authorities in political economy upon which Mr. Taylor relies. He reprobates the doctrines of Smith and Ricardo, and declares that it is "with no small satisfaction" that he finds himself in substantial agreement with "the accomplished author of 'Das Kapital,' whose great work has recently been made generally available to the British public by translation."

The act of 1802, which was introduced by Sir Robert Peel, himself a manufacturer, is said by Mr. Taylor to have had the effect of making employers give up apprentice labor; but it did not apply to children not apprenticed. Accordingly, in 1815, Peel proposed that it should apply to all children employed in cotton and woollen factories, these being the only ones of conspicuous proportions at that day. The law adopted, however, was limited to cotton-factories, and so was that of 1819, which forbade the employment of children under nine, and limited the daily labor of those under sixteen to ten and a half hours, the number of working hours per week being limited to seventy-two. In 1825 these hours were reduced to sixty-nine, and, soon after, night-work by persons under twenty-one was prohibited. In 1833 a Royal Commission was appointed, and their report has become a classic. They found that children employed in manufactures generally worked as many hours as adults, with most injurious results both physically and mentally, and recommended legislation, which was supplied at once by what is known as Lord Althorpe's Act. This applied to all factories except those of silk, forbidding the employment of children under nine, limiting the hours of those under thirteen to forty-eight per week and nine per day, and providing for schooling and holidays. In 1844 another bill was passed, of which Mr. Taylor's account is very confused, but it reduced the hours of labor for children to six and one-half, while permitting their employment at the age of eight, and provided for fencing dangerous machinery.

In 1847 the scope of this legislation was further extended by prohibiting adult women from laboring more than fifty-eight hours a week, or ten a day. Then followed an attack upon the relay system, and in 1850 all work was prohibited except between six A. M. and six P. M. in summer, and seven A. M. and seven P. M. in winter, one and a half hours being taken out for meals, and work to cease at two P. M. on Saturdays. Minor acts extending the scope of those already existing were passed from time to time, industries not classed as "textile" being gradually included; and the term "factory," which had been extended first so as to cover some forty species of places of employment, and later to any establishment where fifty persons were employed in any manufacturing process, was further supplemented by the introduction of the term "workshop," which was defined as any place where any handicraft was carried on by the employment of any child, young person, or woman. By more recent statutes the hours of labor have been still further reduced, the age at which children may be employed raised and their schooling provided for; adult males as well as women and children have been put under the care of Government inspectors, and almost all productive industries except agriculture regulated. Since it is not referred to by Mr. Taylor, it is necessary to add that, by the abolition of protective duties and the progress of invention, such an enormous burden was lifted from production as to make Governmental interference by factory legislation, as to which much apprehension was felt by some manufacturers, inappreciable in reducing the efficiency of labor.

Mr. Taylor seems to incline to the opinion that the factory system, with all its drawbacks, is not unfavorable to either health or morals. He attributes this result, as we understand him, to factory legislation, but he does not concur with Miss Beatrice Potter, who has recently taken the position that, in order to prevent the evils of "sweating," people ought to be prohibited from working at home and be forced to work in factories. Mr. Taylor does not object to this on the ground that it interferes with freedom, but on the ground that it is practicable to inspect home workers, although he is somewhat staggered when it comes to the inspection of domestic service, being conscious here, he says, of a difference which he finds it difficult to define. This, however, is the only exception which he allows to the principle that Government must inspect all the affairs of its subjects. "No one," he says, "has ever proposed a factory act to prevent any one overworking himself," but this is a misleading statement of the case. A recent act makes it a misdemeanor for persons working in white-lead works not to wash themselves according to prescribed rules, which is not different in principle from forbidding them to work more than prescribed hours. The regulations of trade unions are specifically directed to this end, and it has been proposed that the desired eight-hour law should embody this principle.

In the present constitution of society, every producer expects to exchange his product for others, and he is under precisely as much compulsion to labor when he buys his own materials as when he works up materials bought for him. In either case he must work or starve, and in the modern world the material surroundings—which are all that the Government can regulate—of the mass of those who work for hire are better than those of all but a small proportion of such as live by selling the products of their own unaided labor. Mr. Taylor has the courage of his convictions; he sincerely believes that the ideal state is a vast mutual inspection society, and it cannot be denied that there has been a sufficient tendency in this direction in England to yield him encouragement. He furnishes us with some speculations as to a phase of industrial life that may succeed the present factory system, considering it not improbable that we may presently be able to consume water as fuel, thus rendering the congregation of workers unnecessary. But Mr. Taylor is perhaps not the safest of guides in matters that involve historical deduction, as he gravely announces his belief that it is "among the great thinkers of ancient Hellas, ancient Judea, and ancient Egypt (if we knew more of them), that in all human probability the worthiest discussion of many social problems which even now, though in a new guise, confront us might be found, not in the hasty, superficial, and often sordid literature of our own day."

Preludes and Studies: Musical Themes of the Day. By W. J. Henderson. Longmans, Green & Co. 1891.

As the sub-title indicates, this volume deals entirely with topics of present popular interest, and its most conspicuous merit is its readableness, combined with a directness of style and clearness of statement that will make even an occasional technical paragraph easy to follow by the general reader of musical literature. Exactly one-half of the 245 pages are devoted to Wagner, whose later dramas are discussed under such headings as "The Story," "The Philosophy and Humanity," "Some Objections to *Leitmotive*," "Comments and Commentators," "The Book of Parsifal," "A Study in Tristan," "The Endurance of Wagner's Works." The second half of the book is devoted to a study of the evolution of piano music, and to Schumann and the programme symphony.

The story of the Wagner dramas is briefly and graphically told in these pages. In the section which follows, the most interesting part is the discussion of Wagner's treatment of love. In the chapter on leading motives, Mr. Henderson, while correcting some popular errors, reaches the extraordinary conclusion that "the *Leitmotiv* system, while not truly dramatic, is truly musical." To us it seems the very essence of the music-*drama*—that which, by identifying certain musical phrases with the characters of the play and their mental processes, makes it possible for the orchestra to tell the story alone. Liszt lauded Wagner for having thus given music a new *intellectual* interest. If some opera-goers are too tired or too indolent to exercise their intellects in following a Wagner plot in the orchestra, it surely would be absurd to blame the composer for this. Mr. Henderson justly insists on the necessity of repeated hearing for thorough appreciation of any good opera. He might have

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added that to those who can follow the German text the leading-motives never appear to be riddles, for every line of the poem, as it is sung, tells the meaning of the music that goes with it. Here again we must say that it would be absurd to blame Wagner for the fact that some hearers do not understand German, or that some singers do not enunciate their words distinctly. If sung and understood as they should be, there are no riddles in Wagner's dramas.

Delightfully spicy and sensible is the chapter entitled "Comments and Commentators," in which the author belabors two English Philistines, Sir Arthur Sullivan and Joseph Bennett, for their insular criticisms on Wagner. But we cannot agree with the opinion, incidentally expressed in speaking of Sucher, Malten, Lehmann, and other German artists, that "all that these people know about singing, Italy taught them, directly or indirectly." It would take too much space to discuss this point fully, but it may be said succinctly that what Germany (Schubert, Schumann, Franz, and Wagner) has superadded to Italian vocal style and method is very similar to what Schumann and Chopin superadded to the pianoforte style of (say) Hummel. Why cannot the greatest of Italian vocalists, Mme. Patti, sing a Schumann or Franz song or a Wagner rôle? The answer to that question would make an interesting essay, and would destroy many popular notions concerning Italian singing.

The chapter on the endurance of Wagner's works will be interesting reading to certain prophets. It could have been made stronger still by quoting statistics regarding the yearly growing frequency of Wagner performances. On page 77 there is a good hit at the anti-Wagnerites. Many years ago Brendel remarked in a newspaper article that very many of Wagner's enemies were people who were bored by all good music, but as "good form" required them to abstain from abusing the great dead, they poured out the vials of their wrath on Wagner. In a similar vein Mr. Henderson remarks:

"It is a curious fact—at any rate it seems a fact—that the bona-fide anti-Wagnerite never goes to a symphony or chamber concert. If he did, he would be obliged to condemn Beethoven, Schumann, Liszt, Chopin, Brahms, Dvorák, Tchaikowsky, and Rubinstein for doing the very same thing that Wagner did—writing dissonant measures when it suited their purpose to do so. But, as there is no blatant opposition to these composers, we are forced to the conclusion that the anti-Wagnerites do not go to hear their music, or else they are inconsistent—which is, of course, inconceivable."

Of the pages on piano music the most original section is that on the evolution of the concerto from the form used by Mozart to that of Liszt and D'Albert. It is odd that Mr. Henderson, while not quite approving of the leading-motive in the music drama, should find the principle of progress, here as well as, later on, in the Schumann symphony, in the practice of carrying forward the thematic germs of one movement into the next. A little more reflection will, we are convinced, make him a full-blooded Wagnerite in this question, too. In the symphony he justly places Schumann as second only to Beethoven, with a doubt whether even the "second" is entirely just. The history of the piano is suggested in this brief sentence: "The instrument which had been a prattling babe in the hands of Scarlatti, a singing boy in the hands of Mozart, a hero and a prophet in the hands of Beethoven, became a poet in those of Schumann." The question of programme music is thus summed up:

"No one can deny that interest is added to a composition for the average hearer by the application of a 'programme.' Men and women are fond of having a peg on which to hang their imaginations. This is sometimes urged as an objection against all programme music. The objectors say one cannot understand such music without a key. That is true enough; but when the key is supplied, it certainly opens the door for us, and lets us see what is going on in the composer's mind. The music stimulates the imagination, and the two act and react on one another."

Spanish Institutions of the Southwest. By Frank W. Blackmar, Professor of History and Sociology in the Kansas State University. [Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science. Extra Volume X.] Baltimore. 1891.

THIS volume certainly marks a progress in the methods of treating the history of Spanish colonization in America. The step in advance consists in the fact that Spain's rule of her American colonies is recognized as a policy and system, and not merely looked upon as organized brigandage, as which it is only too often pictured by so-called historical writers. There is an honest intention on the part of the author to do Spain justice, but in carrying out that intention the means have been lamentably defective. Mr. Blackmar is inadequately versed in Spanish legislation for the Indies, and since that chief source is not open to him, his book lacks permanent value. The blame for this falls not so much upon him, for one may be ignorant of a subject and still honestly believe that he knows all about it; the blame falls upon Johns Hopkins University for publishing the work, and thereby recommending it as something which it is not, namely, a solid and accurate production.

California occupies the greatest space in the book, and this is but natural, as the author lived there for some time, and consequently is better acquainted with California than with any other section of the Southwest. The missions and missionaries absorb a great deal of his attention, and he is very fair and just in his appreciations of their work. In regard to New Mexico he is less successful, having but a very insufficient knowledge of the history of early Spanish colonization of that country, and no knowledge at all of the real nature of the Pueblo Indians. It suffices to notice here that he speaks of "Montezuma" as a Sun God and of a "Montezuma worship" in particular. Of the manner in which the Pueblos submitted to Spanish power, of the legal consequences thereof, of the true legal status of the Pueblos under Spanish rule, he gives hardly any idea; and even that idea is fundamentally distorted.

The great defect and mistake on the part of Mr. Blackmar has been to undertake his work mostly with the help of secondary sources, and without having made in advance a serious study of Spanish laws and institutions in *Spanish* documents and books. The 'Recopilación de las Indias' is, of course, a highly valuable source, but in order to understand it one has to know the principles according to which the Indies were to be governed, and for this purpose second-hand works are utterly inadequate. Antonio de Leon y Pinelo, Juan de Solor, and Pereyra, for church legislation (so intimately connected in Spanish affairs with civil legislation), Abreu, Frasso, etc., etc., should be studied first, in order to obtain an intelligent glance at the picture which Spanish institutions present. Mr. Blackmar is evidently ignorant of these and of a great many other works of that kind. Of the collections of royal decrees (*cédulas*) he knows nothing. Neither Vasco de Puga, nor Aguiar, nor Montemayor, nor Beleña seems to be known to him, or, at least, appreciated by him, and without a close study of the royal ordinances and decrees there is no possibility of understanding and fairly judging of the institutions of Spanish origin in America.

The origin of Spanish institutions in general as far as the formation of the monarchy—in fact, the times previous to the discovery of America—is concerned, is well discussed and represented by Mr. Blackmar. But it strikes us that not enough stress is laid on the influence of Arabic or Moorish culture in Spain. When a people leaves such indelible traces in the social, political, and judicial terminology of another people as the Arabs have left in Spain, it must be supposed that the institutions themselves bear equally distinct traces. Words like *alcalde*, *alguazil*, *alcaide*, *almojarifazco*, *alcavalá*, even possibly *barrio* (from bar, field), are significant of the rôle played by Arabic influence in the institutions of Spain.

The book is handsomely illustrated by photo-lithographs, California furnishing the greatest number of views; and the general make-up is very commendable.

The Cause of an Ice Age. By Sir Robert Ball, Royal Astronomer of Ireland. D. Appleton & Co. 1891.

DR. BALL has at once a high standing among mathematicians and a wide reputation as a popular writer upon astronomy. To most readers, however, the attempt to popularize his subject in the present volume will seem to have been somewhat overdone. The first half of the book is a rambling disquisition occupied mostly with dim intimations of what the author is going to prove. To such an extent is this drawn out that an eminent legal friend of ours laid the book down in despair of finding out what Dr. Ball's theory of the cause really was.

This was unfortunate, since the fifth and sixth chapters contain a clear-cut discussion of a discovery with which all students of the glacial period will hereafter have to reckon. The discovery is one which appears greatly to strengthen the theory of Adhémar, so ably defended by Croll and Geikie, that the glacial period, or periods (for their theory implies that there have been a great many of them), was the effect of the precession of the equinoxes, combined with changes in the eccentricity of the earth's orbit. As the result of these movements, there is considerable variation both in the length of the seasons and in the distances of the earth from the sun during perihelion and aphelion. At the present time the northern winter occurs in perihelion, when the sun is about 3,000,000 miles nearer than in the summer, and the winter (that is, the period from the autumnal to the vernal equinox) is seven days shorter than the summer. On account of the precession of the equinoxes, these conditions are exactly reversed every 10,500 years. About 250,000 years ago, and at irregular intervals still earlier, these differences were greatly increased. At times the difference between perihelion and aphelion distances has amounted to seven or eight millions of miles, and the difference between the length of the summer and that of the winter to as much as thirty-three days.

Croll, adopting an erroneous statement of Herschel, reasoned upon the assumption that the shortness of the perihelion season was exactly counterbalanced by the greater proximity of the sun, so that a hemisphere of the earth would receive the same amount of heat in the short season of perihelion passage as in the longer season consumed in making the aphelion

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passage; but he reasoned that when winter occurred in aphelion, the loss of heat from radiation would be excessive, and would tend to the production of glacial conditions. Dr. Ball's discovery is thought greatly to reinforce the theory of Croll; for he finds that "of the total amount of heat received from the sun on a hemisphere of the earth in the course of a year, 63 per cent. is received during the summer and 37 per cent. is received during the winter" (p. 90).

But it is far from certain that Dr. Ball's discovery will restore the failing fortunes of Croll's ingenious theory, for the recent objections to that theory are mainly drawn from tangible facts. Prominent among these is the absence of any signs of a general glacial period during the Tertiary epoch, while, in America, the centre of glacial dispersion proves to be not the north pole, but two points considerably below the arctic circle, namely: in the eastern part of the continent, the region south of Hudson's Bay; and in the western, the highlands of British Columbia. These facts indubitably point to some terrestrial cause as predominant in the case. Whatever tendency to produce glacial conditions there may be, therefore, in the astronomical changes adduced by Dr. Ball, it is pretty certainly subordinate to other causes yet to be discovered by the students of geology and meteorology. So evident has this become to American geologists within the last ten years that there is a great revival among them of various terrestial theories, prominent among which is that of great changes, since the Tertiary period, in the relative level of the land in the northern hemisphere; while the Director of the Glacial Branch of the United States Geological Survey has recently committed himself to the theory that there was a change of the position of the earth's axis which brought the north pole far down towards the southern part of Greenland.

Dr. Ball's volume is certainly timely, since it marks a new epoch of lively interest in the subject of which it treats. But its real help towards the solution of the problem of the cause of an ice age will, upon close examination, prove to be insignificant. We note an error which may mislead the unwary. The letters "X and Y" (line 9 from top of page 82) should be A to B; and "A to B" in line 10, on the same page, should be X and Y. The context shows this; but if further proof is wanted, it may be had on page 92. The error is, apparently, purely typographical.

My Canadian Journal. 1872–1878. By Lady Dufferin. D. Appleton & Co. 1891.

When Lady Dufferin says, in her preface, that wonderful changes have taken place in Canada in the last thirteen years, so that she would to-day be quite unable to recognize many of the places herein described, and when she further says that, in view of her husband's official position, she has carefully avoided any reference to the politics of the Dominion, she gives two excellent reasons why her letters from Canada should have remained unpublished, and why, being published, they are decidedly uninteresting. Her accounts of official visits to sections of the country which were considered remote in the early seventies, but are now as accessible as Buffalo, are about as valuable as a guide-book of the same period would be; while the entire absence of any reference to the political questions of the time takes away any importance that might attach to such a volume as this. It was undoubtedly very entertaining for Lady Dufferin's mother, to whom this journal was sent in weekly instalments, to learn that "D." or "His Ex." had made two speeches and passed through three arches, that the salmon fishing had been good or bad, as the case might be, that the private theatricals had gone off well, and that the children were learning the outer edge; but it is assuming a good deal to suppose that the general public will be equally interested fifteen years after these important events took place.

The Governor-General of Canada, although the direct representative of the Queen, is really a very much less important personage than the Parliamentary leaders. He can at times perform a useful part as a sort of antipyretic, in lowering the political temperature, which is apt to rise to a dangerous height, especially among the French-Canadian politicians. On several occasions the present British Ambassador to Paris exerted such influence with a skill that is still remembered at Ottawa; but to judge from this book one would suppose that his six years of official life had been spent in a weary round of receptions and speeches, varied by salmon fishing and occasional glimpses of "the States." As regards speeches, it is annoying to be repeatedly told that "this was one of D.'s most successful efforts" without being given an opportunity of forming an opinion on the subject; but, on the other hand, the few specimens of D.'s eloquence that have found their way into the book cannot be classed higher than the solid after-dinner variety of the article.

Lady Dufferin has been somewhat careless about the orthography of places in Canada, and, having enjoyed the hospitality of Mr. George Stephen (now Lord Mount-Stephen), she should have known that his name lacked the final *s*. Turning to matters of style, it would perhaps be hypercritical to object to such expressions as "having dressed ourselves smart," but really we feel sorry for the gentleman who wrote a play to which her Ladyship refers as "such a piece which we could possibly not stay to see"!

The book throws no light on the question of the future of Canada, on the characteristics of its inhabitants, on the varied beauty of its scenery; and, in fact, there seems to be no ground on which its existence can be justified.

Memoir of Rufus Ellis. Including Selections from his Journal and Letters. Edited by Arthur B. Ellis. Boston: William B. Clarke & Co. 1891.

It is a very interesting and engaging personality that this handsome volume reveals. Dr. Ellis was at once one of the most conservative and catholic of the Unitarian clergy of his generation. His conservatism was quite as much a matter of taste as of opinion, as, for example, in his preference for the King James translation of the Bible over any other actual or possible. In the earlier part of his ministry he was much impressed by Emerson, and was something of a Transcendentalist, but he grew more conservative in his opinions as time went on, while never losing his interest in liberal ideas. Had he been reared in an orthodox church, he thought he should have been content to remain in it, a liberal among conservatives. He had cordial relations with several orthodox clergymen, but they were such men as Dr. Washburn of New York and Prof. Diman of Brown University. Yet, though Bishop Huntington was his intimate friend, he seems never to have inclined to follow him out of the Unitarian into the Episcopal Church. He was one of the first among Unitarians to prefer the Athanasian to the Arian Christology. In this respect he was a leader and has many followers. In this connection it should be said that Dr. George E. Ellis, who contributes an interesting chapter on the "Development of Liberal Christianity," has entirely misconceived Dr. Hedge's reasons for preferring "Humanitarianism" to "Unitarianism" as a denominational name. His preference had nothing to do with the humanitarian tendencies of the denomination, but only with the humanitarian conception of Christ.

Another mistake is where it is said (p. 162) that, "in common with Dr. Martineau," Mr. Ellis never adopted the name "Unitarian" as defining his religious views. Dr. Martineau frankly accepts the name "as defining his religious views," but objects to it as the name of a church or body of churches, as implying a dogmatic basis of fellowship. Another strange mistake to have escaped proof-readers and friends is the statement that Lowell's Class Poem has never been printed. Dr. Ellis was in the same class with Lowell, who furnishes a brief letter of reminiscence, warm in its praise of one who could not have approved his youthful levity. Leaving the Divinity School, he went to Rochester, N. Y., for a short time before settling in Northampton, where some of his people were of that noble temper which Mrs. Susan I. Lesley has made familiar to us in her 'Recollections of My Mother.' He remained there ten years, going to Boston in 1853 and dying in 1885. He did not make much noise, but in the ways of quiet service his was an enviable success. His catholicity was not merely for those more conservative than himself, but also and increasingly for those more radical; and there is no better testimony to his character than that on p. 290 which brings out this aspect of his life.

Ten Centuries of Toilette. From the French of A. Robida. By Mrs. Cashel Hoey. With illustrations by the author. London: Sampson Low; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

This epitome of the history of costume, in gay binding and with gayly colored plates, differs from more monumental works in treating of the outward adorning of one sex only—the sex whose loveliness has been said when unadorned to be adorned the most. Such a distinction is quite in keeping with the fashion of the day in book-making. Woman as she appears in almost every relation in life has already been made the subject of a special volume. Here she is to be seen as she appears in "ruffs and cuffs and farthingales and things." Those to whom such amiable follies are interesting will be sure to find entertainment in these pages of miscellaneous content. The illustrations at once prove to the eye that fashions have been very charming as well as very ridiculous in the course of the centuries passed in review. They were never more picturesque than when the lady of the castle figured in the tall conical cap known as the "hennin," with a flowing diaphanous veil, her jewelled alms-bag at her side, and on her feet the pointed shoes denounced by the preachers as an "outrage on the Creator," but into whose snares even the sterner sex did not keep the feet from falling.

Descriptions of the cumbersome raiment of wrought needlework of the mediæval ladies, of the little better than no raiment of the *merveilleuses* of the Directory, of the "windmills," "gardens," "frigates," and other preposterous headdresses of the unfortunate Bourbon beauties, incline one to look with a cheerful eye upon the modes of the present day, even though they include some supererogatory street-sweep-

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ing. Dress reform is, however, by no means this author's affair. He clings, in effect, to the good old adage that to be beautiful one must suffer. After describing the corset "that penetrated the flesh, took the skin off the waist, and made the ribs ride up one over the other," he takes the tone of prophecy, and adds, "The corset will witness the burial of successive ages, will survive all other fashions, notwithstanding every attack upon it, and the doctors who are unanimous in their excommunication of it, and will be ever victorious over all and sundry."

It is a pity that the English dress of the book should be so slipshod. It is sufficiently clear that the original presented the difficulties of a rambling, ready-made style, and of indifferent punctuation, but this does not excuse, for instance, such a hap-hazard rendering as "Josephine's dressmaker tried back into the far past, even to the days of the Greek and Roman ladies, for elegant novelties two thousand years old." One wonders, too, why the titles under the twenty-nine full-page illustrations should all be left untranslated (though the index gives them in English), while those under the woodcuts plentifully scattered through the text have not been so neglected. Also, a prose translation of the various verses quoted here and there would doubtless have proved, to many readers, better than none.

The History of the Middle Ages. By Victor Duruy of the French Academy. Translated from the Twelfth Edition by E. H. and M. D. Whitney, with Notes and Revisions by George Burton Adams, Professor of History in Yale University. Henry Holt & Co. Pp. xxvi, 588.

The History of Modern Civilization: A Handbook based upon M. Gustave Ducoudray's 'Histoire Sommaire de la Civilisation.' With Illustrations. D. Appleton & Co. Pp. xx, 587.

DURUY'S 'Histoire du Moyen Âge' is justly regarded as the best compendious treatise on the subject. Hence the announcement, more than a year ago, that an English version of the work was in preparation was everywhere received with unusual satisfaction. Its appearance has relieved the college instructor of a serious embarrassment. As the editor justly declares—

"Text-books on general history almost invariably fall into one or the other of two faults: some of them deal in general views and afford no sufficient ground-work of fact, so that, however clear these general views may be, they are left hanging in the air in the student's mind, and though he may have learned a great many plausible explanations of history, he has learned very little history. Others crowd together such a mass of detail that the student cannot find his way, and the work leaves in his mind only a jumble of unorganized facts. The author has followed the middle course between these two extremes with very great success. The reader can hardly fail to gain a clear conception of the general life and growth of the race during this time, and of the relation of the several lines of progress to one another, and yet these general views are continually anchored to the facts and given fixed and definite place."

The author's analysis is very clear, his style crisp and vigorous; and he has wisely confined himself in the main to a concise, straightforward narrative. To these characteristics his success is largely due. In thirty-three chapters, arranged in ten books, he has been able to give us a most effective sketch of the extremely complex though always fascinating history of the eleven centuries between the first Barbarian invasions and the capture of Constantinople by the Turks. On the other hand, even the author's latest edition retains many errors in matters of detail, and fails notoriously to profit by the results of recent research. It has long needed the thorough recension which Prof. Adams has now given it. Besides making "numerous slight revisions" in the text, the editor has supplied in the margin many critical notes based on the latest investigations. It is to be regretted, however, that Prof. Adams did not supplement these valuable notes with references to the principal sources of information.

The translators have done their work well; and the usefulness of the book is greatly increased by the introduction of a number of colored maps in appropriate places throughout the text. There is also a good table of contents and a very full index.

The handbook of the 'History of Modern Civilization' is a "continuation and completion" of the 'History of Ancient Civilization,' prepared in a similar form by the same editor, the Rev. J. Verschoyle, more than two years ago. It is designed to give "young students and general readers a comprehensive view of the progress of the nations, as far as it is known, out of the decadence of ancient civilization, through mediæval barbarism, until they emerge in modern, and advance to contemporary, civilization." It is an "adaptation rather than a translation" of the original; for, declares the editor, "M. Ducoudray's standpoint is so exclusively French that it has been necessary not only to omit much and to correct freely, but also to fill numerous and extensive gaps in his knowledge of England and other countries." It may be doubted, however, whether a method which conceals the individuality of authorship can ever prove entirely satisfactory.

The work is, of course, much more comprehensive in its plan and ostensibly more philosophic in its aim than that of Duruy. It is divided into four books, comprising twenty-one chapters, and attempts an explanation of the leading facts in social progress from the advent of Christianity to the latest events in the United States and the colonial empire of Great Britain. Considering the vast field covered, the author has supported his generalizations by a creditable number of well-chosen details. Moreover, the narrative is very interesting and the translation is well done. But the work as a whole stands scientifically on a lower plane than the treatise of Duruy. In those chapters devoted to similar topics, there is not an equal breadth of view, precision of statement, or clearness of analysis. There is perhaps more conscious effort at fine writing, and consequently more of those faults of overstatement and hasty generalization which usually lurk in epigram. The chief defect of the author is lack of thoroughness, particularly in the discussion of causes and results. Thus, in the chapter devoted to the rise and character of Christianity, he fails to appreciate the real religious and moral power of Stoicism, and the spiritual significance of the advent in the West of the mystic rites of Egypt and the East. So also, in the account of the persecutions of the early Christians, he fails to make a distinction between the period of legal proscription, beginning with the celebrated rescript of Trajan, and that which precedes it—a distinction of primary importance. In his discussion of the origin of the Crusades, the cause which is really fundamental—the localization of the Christian worship, beginning even before the days of St. Jerome—is not referred to, unless by implication. William the Conqueror is described as "formally and methodically" establishing feudalism in England, with no mention of the famous oath of Salisbury, or of those other devices by which he for ever rendered the principal and characteristic evils of feudalism impossible on the English soil. Voltaire is treated with fairness and generosity, but without adequate appreciation of his great mission as champion against the theological and intellectual absolutism of the eighteenth century, which, according to his best critic, renders Voltairism the counterpart of the Reformation and the Renaissance. The attempt to explain the causes of our civil war is little short of trivial, and the editor is sometimes careless in details, as when he suffers the statement to pass that San Francisco is the capital of California.

Still, the author's defects are not fatal. They are for the most part faults of omission, and may readily be corrected by the alert student. Probably the best chapters in the handbook are those which deal with social life and with the development of literature and the arts. The work will undoubtedly prove a valuable aid in the study of general history. The numerous pictorial illustrations are full of instruction, but there are no bibliographical reference lists, and the failure to provide an index is inexcusable.

Atlantis Arisen; or, Talks of a Tourist about Oregon and Washington. By Mrs. Frances Fuller Vinton. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1891.

THIS is the somewhat inconsequent title of a very chatty and readable book about our two northwesternmost States, which seems very timely now that this region is making such rapid advances in wealth and prosperity, for it is really very little known except by those who have actually visited it. It is divided by the Cascade range of mountains into an interior or eastern half, which possesses the general arid character of the Great Basin region, and a coastal or western half, which has abundant rains and a climate similar to that of the Eastern States. This western coast-belt is warmed by the Kuro Siwo, or Pacific Gulf Stream, and its abundant precipitation induces a luxuriance of forest growth unequalled in any other part of the earth outside of the tropics. Abundant interior waterways, magnificent land-locked harbors, a generally equable climate, and the most imposing natural scenery are among the attractions of this Western region. Its southern portion received permanent settlements from among the thrifty and enterprising farming population of the Northern States several years before the wild tide of promiscuous emigration was started by the discovery of gold in California. The whole was for a long time included under the general name Oregon, the half to the north of the Columbia River being later set off as the Territory (now the State) of Washington.

That part of Mrs. Vinton's book which is apparently the result of actual personal observations is bright and attractive, and gives a very pleasing and trustworthy picture of "Atlantis." Its usefulness is sadly marred by the absence of an index or even of a descriptive table of contents. In the portion which is evidently derived from the testimony of others, especially that which explains the remarkable geological phenomena of the region, there is evidence of a want of that discrimination in selecting material which would come from technical familiarity with the subject. The book is handsomely got up, and illustrated by about thirty excellent

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reproductions of photographic views, some of which show that most characteristic feature of the scenery, a snow-capped volcano, looking like the ghost of a mountain, raising its white head on the far distant horizon, high above the dark, pine-clad hills.

The Principles of Chemistry. By D. Mendeléef. Longmans, Green & Co.

THE work before us will be heartily welcomed by English and American chemists. It gives the mature views of a man of remarkable originality and talent, who has enriched chemistry with one of the finest and most fruitful discoveries ever made in that science—the so-called "periodic law." This law constitutes the keynote of the work. It is constantly referred to, and is brought in to explain, illustrate, and suggest. The work differs very materially from other books on the branch of science of which it treats. The main text embraces general descriptions only, while very ample details are given in footnotes at the bottoms of the pages, in much finer print. These contain a vast deal of varied information. The little-known work of the Russian chemists receives full justice, the physics of chemistry being the field in which the Slavic mind seems to labor with especial pleasure. The author's own views differ in many respects from those now generally received, and will certainly not always find favor, though the ideas of an original and independent thinker must command a certain respect. Details are not always given correctly. It is not easy to keep up with a science which advances with such extraordinary rapidity—witness the three gigantic annual volumes of the German Chemical Society. Yet the author's industry has been noteworthy, and the omissions and inaccurate statements will probably be corrected in another edition.

The book is eminently readable. It is written in an agreeable, almost colloquial, style. The translation from the Russian is fairly good, so far at least as our own language is concerned, with an occasional quaintness which is not unpleasing. The work is in no sense a text-book, but, as the most original and suggestive treatise on inorganic chemistry which we possess, it is well worthy of the student's attention, and must be regarded as a very important addition to chemical literature.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Autenrieth, Georg, and Keep, Robert P. A Homeric Dictionary for Schools and Colleges. New ed. Harpers.
Baily, W. E. Classical Poems. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.
Baker, M. N. The Manual of American Water-Works. *Engineering News* Publishing Co.
Barr, Mrs. A. E. Short Stories. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.25.
Bastable, Prof. C. F. The Commerce of Nations. London: Methuen & Co.
Berdoe, Edward. The Browning Cyclopædia. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Black, W. A Daughter of Heth. New and revised edition. Harpers.
Bompiani, Sofia. Italian Explorers in Africa. F. H. Revell Co. 80 cents.
Bowser, Prof. E. A. Plane and Solid Geometry. 2d ed. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.35.
Carlyle, Thomas. Lectures on the History of Literature Scribners. $1.
Combe, T. Jonquille; or, The Swiss Smuggler. London: Percival & Co.
Craig, W. J. The Complete Works of William Shakspere. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Thos. Nelson & Sons.
Pepper, G. W. Pleading at Common Law and under the Codes. Northport, N. Y.: Edward Thompson Co.
Smith, John. Doubting Castle: A Religious Novelette. John B. Alden.
Spaulding, Rev. J. F. Jesus Christ the Proof of Christianity. Milwaukee, Wis.: The Young Churchman Co. $1.
Stebbing, W. Sir Walter Ralegh. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Stokes, W. S. A Second Supplement to the Anglo-Saxon Codes. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Story, J. Commentaries on Equity Pleadings. 10th ed. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $6.
Stowe, Mrs. H. B. Uncle Tom's Cabin. Illustrated by E. W. Kemble. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Tennyson, Lord. Idylls of the King. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
The Critic. July–December, 1891. The *Critic* Company.
The Cruikshankian Momus. London: John C. Nimmo; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.
The Mysterious Beggar. J. S. Ogilvie. $1.
Tollemache, Beatrix L. Grisons Incidents in Olden Times. London; Percival & Co.
Traill, H. D. The Marquis of Salisbury. Harpers.
Turner, T. A. Argentina and the Argentines. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $3.
Tyndall, Prof. John. New Fragments. Appletons. $2.
Vickers, R. H. Martyrdoms of Literature. Chicago: Charles H. Sergel & Co.
Victor, Horace. Mariam; or, Twenty-one Days. Macmillan. $1.
Vinogradoff, Prof. Paul. Villainage in England: Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Ward, Mrs. Humphry. The History of David Grieve. Macmillan. $1.
Washington's Journal, 1747–8. Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons.
Watson, Ida D. Unrest. G. W. Dillingham. $1.25.
Whiting, Harold. A Course of Experiments in Physical Measurement. Part IV. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Wicksteed, P. H. Four Lectures on Henrik Ibsen. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 90 cents.
Wilson, F. Mary. A Primer on Browning. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Wilson, Sir Daniel. Memorials of Edinburgh in the Olden Time. 2 vols. 2d ed. Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black. $10.

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Net assets, January 1, 1891		$15,932,328 72
Receipts during the year:		
For Premiums	$4,074,593 19	
For interest, etc	926,915 15	5,001,508 34
		$20,933,837 06
DISBURSEMENTS.		
Claims by death	$1,136,199 31	
Matured endowments, etc	198,178 52	
Surrendered policies	315,889 57	
†Premium abatements	661,775 57	
Total paid policyholders,	$2,312,042 97	
Added to reserve,	$1,682,907 00	
Taxes paid in Penn	$69,892 83	
Taxes paid in other States	50,653 20	
Salaries, medical fees, office and legal expenses	173,381 76	
Commissions to agents and rents	476,851 38	
Agency and other expenses	144,644 18	
Advertising, printing, and supplies	36,209 11	
Office furniture, etc	23,283 82	$3,286,959 25
Net assets, Jan. 1, 1892		$17,646,877 81
†Being sums allowed in reduction of collectible premiums.		
ASSETS.		
City loans, railroad and water bonds, bank and other stocks		$5,928,830 78
Mortgages and ground rents (first liens)		6,964,889 14
Premium notes secured by policies		577,893 24
Loans on collateral, policy loans, etc		2,847,816 43
Home office and real estate bought to secure loans		954,040 95
Cash in banks, trust companies, and on hand		373,407 27
Net Ledger Assets as above,		$17,646,877 81
Net deferred and unreported premiums		575,184 97
Interest due and accrued, etc		154,068 30
Market value of stocks and bonds over cost		175,257 22
Gross Assets, Jan. 1, 1892,		$18,551,388 30
LIABILITIES.		
Death claims reported, but awaiting proof	$95,292 00	
Reserve at 4 per cent. to reinsure risks	15,909,320 00	
Surplus on unreported policies, etc	81,087 17	
Surplus, 4 per cent. basis	2,465,689 13	$18,551,388 30

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